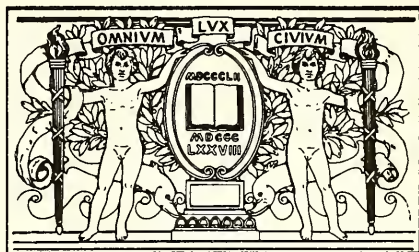


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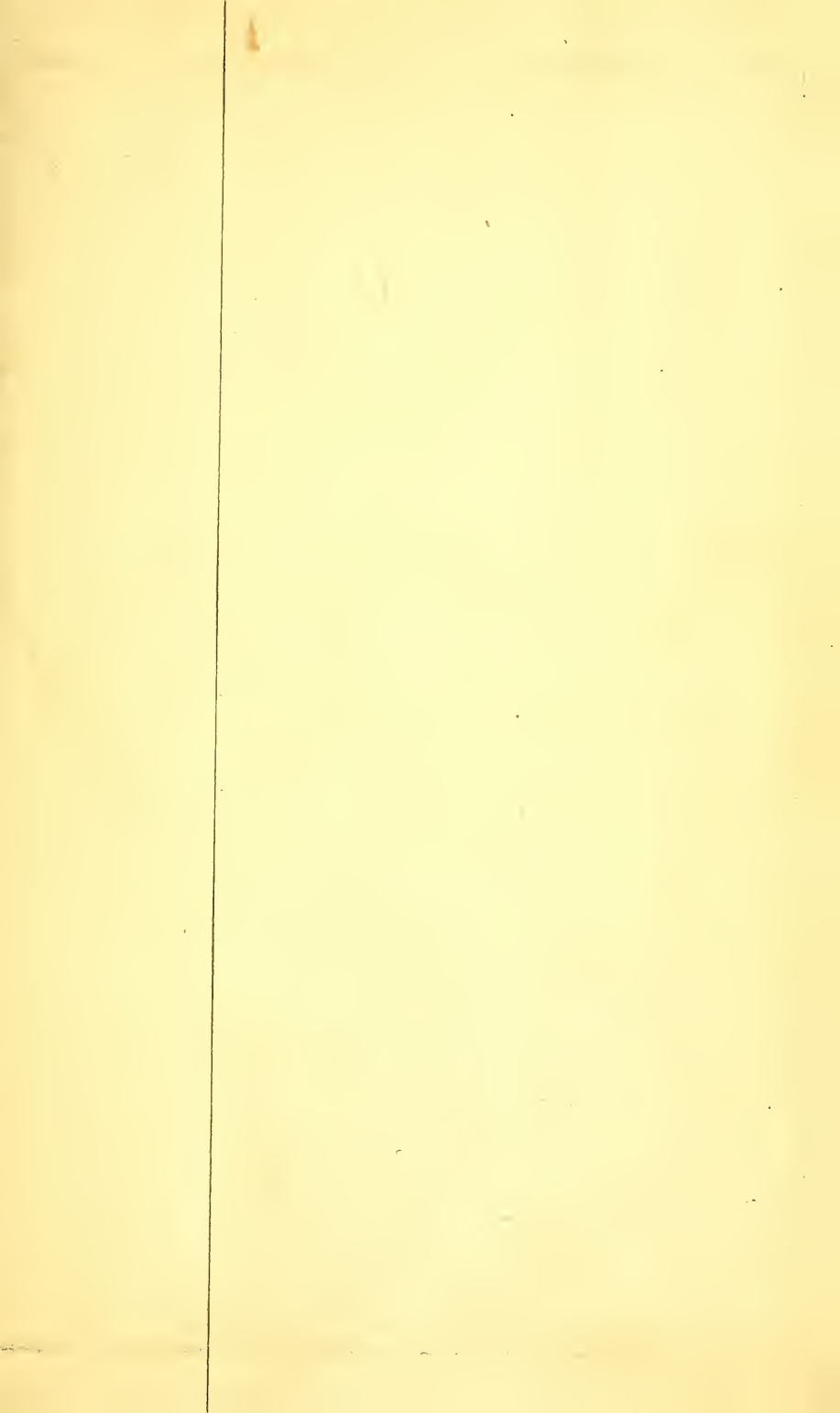


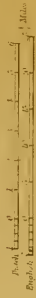
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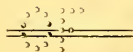
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THE COLONY

OF

NATAL.



AN ACCOUNT OF THE CHARACTERISTICS AND CAPABILITIES
OF THIS BRITISH DEPENDENCY.

PUBLISHED UNDER THE AUTHORITY OF THE GOVERNMENT IMMIGRATION
BOARD, FOR THE GUIDANCE AND INFORMATION OF
EMIGRANTS.

Compiled and Edited by

ROBERT JAMES MANN, M.D., F.R.A.S.,

Superintendent of Education in Natal.



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P R E F A C E .

DURING the year 1858, the Government Immigration Board of Natal (appointed by His Excellency the Lieutenant-Governor, in 1857) proposed, by public advertisement, to give three prizes for the three best Essays, on practical matters relating to the characters of the colony, as a field for Emigrants; reserving to the Colonial Government the right to use the material thus furnished in compiling a book for publication. It was the object of the Immigration Board, in taking this course, to elicit from practical and experienced men, reliable information, which, after due authentication and care, might be authoritatively placed before the British public, in a form adapted to convey a simple and truthful picture of the actual state of things. Four Essays were sent in to compete for these prizes, and three gentlemen,—Mr. Barter, Mr. Babbs, and Dr. Mann, were appointed by His Excellency the Lieutenant-Governor, to act as examiners and judges of the merits of the Essays. Two of the treatises proved to be irrelevant to the object contemplated, and not within the terms of the competition. The first prize, of £50, was ultimately awarded conjointly and equally to the other two Essays, upon the ground that the judges found difficulty in determining that either of these was actually and absolutely, superior to the other. One of the Essays bore the obvious character of being the work of an old and experienced colonist, who had seen with his own eyes, and accomplished with his own hands, much that he wrote about. The other was as manifestly the contribution of a younger hand, but comprised a large mass of very useful and valuable information. Mr. Arbuthnot, of the Umzinto, was the author of the successful

Essay first alluded to. Mr. John Robinson, of Durban, was the author of the second.

His Excellency, the Lieutenant-Governor, was ultimately pleased to request Dr. Mann to prepare a kind of Guide Book to the resources and capabilities of the colony, from the subject material of these Prize Essays, and from other sources. His Excellency's commands have taken effect in the following pages. A considerable portion of the more practical material is derived from the contributions of Mr. Arbuthnot and Mr. Robinson. For other matters, the editor and compiler is himself responsible. It has also been the editor's especial care to verify and authenticate all the statements of the book, by reference to various competent and reliable authorities. The work is consequently presented to the world under these guarantees of accuracy and truthfulness. It is hoped that many readers in England will form, from the perusal of its pages, a correct notion of "The Colony of Natal" as it exists, in the 16th year of its own age as a settled British dependency, and in the year of grace, 1859.

MARITZBURG, NATAL,

September, 1859.

TABLE OF CONTENTS.



CHAP.		PAGE
I.	THE POSITION AND PHYSICAL CHARACTERS OF THE COLONY OF NATAL	1
II.	THE EARLY DAYS OF NATAL	10
III.	THE KAFIR RACES IN NATAL	33
IV.	THE CLIMATE OF NATAL	47
V.	THE COAST LANDS AND TROPICAL PRODUCE; CULTIVATION OF SUGAR, ARROW-ROOT, AND COFFEE	70
VI.	THE UPLANDS; SHEEP FARMING	112
VII.	THE MIDLAND DISTRICTS AND THEIR CAPABILITIES	128
VIII.	THE NATURAL PRODUCTIONS OF NATAL	152
IX.	THE COMMERCIAL PROGRESS OF NATAL	173
X.	A FEW WORDS TO EMIGRANTS	186
	APPENDIX—HINTS TO EMIGRANTS' WIVES ...	224



THE COLONY OF NATAL.

CHAPTER I.

THE POSITION AND PHYSICAL CHARACTERS OF THE COLONY OF NATAL.

THE British Colony of Natal lies on the south-eastern border of Africa, about eight hundred miles beyond the Cape of Good Hope, and looking out on to the Indian Ocean, between the 29th and 31st parallels of south latitude. A limited tract of independent country, inhabited by friendly tribes, divides it from the other British possessions known as Kafraria and the Cape Colony.

Natal, in common with the general range of this portion of the great African continent, is mainly composed of a confused intermingling of the rocks known as Granite, Gneiss, Sandstone, Trap, and Shale. It is, therefore, of the ingredients of some or other of these, loosened and pulverized by the decomposing action of the atmosphere and of energetic subtropical, vegetable life, that the soils which come under the hands of colonial agriculture are made. The hard granite and gneiss constitute a kind of irregular floor to the district, and this floor is then paved with sandstone. But both the floor and the pavement have been broken up into fragmentary slabs by earthquake shatterings, and through the cracks and fissures yawning between the slabs, molten stone from beneath has been poured, so that upon cooling and hardening, it has set into broad swelling slopes and ridgy hills. These outpoured masses form the "Trap."

The granite, the sandstone, and the trap are distributed through the land in the most unmethodical way, as if they had all been chaotically tumbled together again and again, and then left to fall into their permanent positions of rest by accident. The trap is however, on the whole, the most abundant, constituting in some places wide undulating plains, and long staircase-like ridges, and often strewing the surface for miles with gigantic boulders of dark grey, compact, uncrystalline rock. Where the granite shows itself above the compact grey trap, it is moulded into the form of broad, low, and smoothly-rounded hills. The gneiss, which is a streaky variety of the granite, mostly wears the form of more abrupt and knobby prominences, which are not unfrequently tipped and surmounted with little bonnets of sandstone. The trap itself occasionally protrudes from the edge of the more level ridges as bold truncated cones. The sandstone chiefly appears as broad tables, with precipitous faces and sides. These tabular masses of sandstone, which are, indeed, the slabs of the shattered pavement, constitute one very remarkable feature in the scenery of Southern Africa. They form the table-mountains so common in this region. The base of these table-mountains is composed of green accessible slopes, made rugged by projecting buttresses and props. Upon the top of these green-buttressed slopes there rises a perpendicular wall of bare, reddish-grey rock, ridged vertically with rain-washed and wind-worn pillars and furrows. The verdant base is, for the most part, moulded of granite. The bare tablets above are shaped of horizontal layers of sandstone; and upon the top there is a wide expanse of level pasture, often many square miles in extent, which thus presents the curious spectacle of a large tract of land, isolated from the rest of the world by a circumvallation of downward-dipping precipices, with perhaps only one or two narrow, rocky staircases, by which the heights above can be scaled. The adventurous explorer who has climbed one of these rugged paths, and has afterwards pushed on through the thick, coarse, Ixia-studded grass which he encounters, all of a sudden comes to a gentle slope, and then to the edge of a perpendicular descent, which dips down from beneath his feet, and discloses, hundreds of yards below, a mound-encumbered

chasm, or valley, with a silver stream winding its serpentine way in the midst of the rocky wilderness, and on the further sides of the ravine and in the far distance, hills melting into soft purple shadows.

The Table-mountain Sandstone, which is generally connected with the granite by ties of close relationship, is a coarse-grained rock of great geological antiquity. It seems to be older than terraqueous life, being altogether destitute of fossilized traces of organic forms. It belongs properly to the mineral group which the geologist names "Silurian," because its congeners are found in the western districts of England, where the old "Silures" lived. A finer-grained sandstone, of younger age, occurs here and there in patches of limited extent. This younger sandstone contains impressions of vegetable remains, and is often associated with coal-bearing "Shales" (*hardened clay*), the coal, the shale, and the sandstone being distributed in alternate layers. Shale generally appears also at the border of trap-beds. Wherever trap rests in an inclined position upon the slopes of lower beds, its surface has been washed, and the surface-washings have been deposited in layers, which have subsequently dried and hardened into shale.

The abundant trap of South Africa is itself of various degrees of antiquity. In some places it cuts through, and overlies the granite; in other places it has cracked and penetrated the old Silurian sandstone as well; in yet others, it pierces the younger sandstones, and shales, and coal-bearing strata, and then covers them up in overlying masses. This remark applies also, in a more measured degree, to the granite. The granite and gneiss have been upheaved again and again before the existing bold and undulating contour of the land was completed and fixed. There are spots in which even the compact trap seems to have been fractured and penetrated by the granite. The trap and the granite appear to have divided between them the labour of moulding the valleys and hills of the South African land.

Between twenty-seven and a-half degrees, and thirty degrees, of south latitude, and at a varying distance from the sea of from one hundred to two hundred and fifty miles, the high land of South-eastern Africa makes a sudden step-like descent. The

top of this ledge is some six thousand feet above the ocean ; its perpendicular face is several hundred feet high, and from the lower land wears the aspect of a magnificent mountain chain, sloped and buttressed below, and pillared and walled above by bare rock, something like the sides of the Table-mountains. The ledge itself runs in a zig-zag course, and bears the name of the “ Drakenberg,”* or “ Kathlamba” range of mountains.

In twenty-seven degrees and a-half of south latitude a stream flows from the lower slopes of the Drakenberg ledge, and sets south-eastwards in an almost direct course towards the sea. For the first half of its downward progress, this stream is called the “ *Umzingati*,” or “ Buffalo River ;” and through the remaining portion of its length, the “ *Tugela*,” (i. e. “ *Startling River*.”) The Buffalo and Tugela Rivers together are about two hundred miles long. Near to twenty-nine degrees and a-half of south latitude another stream starts from the slopes of the Drakenberg, also flowing south-eastwards to the sea. This stream is called the “ *Umzimkulu*” (*Great River*). The strip of land which lies between the Drakenberg ledge and the sea, and which is inclosed by the Buffalo and Tugela Rivers to the north, and by the Umzimkulu to the south, comprises within itself an area of twelve million and a-half of acres (about equal in extent to Scotland), and has a sea-board upon the Indian Ocean of one hundred and fifty miles. This area constitutes the colony of Natal.† Beyond the Tugela and Buffalo Rivers, to the north, the colony is neighboured by the Zululand of King Panda.‡ Beyond the Umzimkulu, on the south, lies the independent territory of the Kafir Chief Faku. Above the steppe of the Drakenberg stretches the territory of the Transvaal Republic, of the Orange River Free-state, and the Basuta country of the Chief Moshesh. The north-western boundary wall of the colony,—the mountainous ledge of the Drakenberg,—does not

* “ Drakenberg” (Dragon’s Mountain), among the Dutch ; “ Kathlamba,” among the natives.

† The boundary of the colony, towards the south-west, is, however, not very accurately defined at present in the uplands.

‡ There is a small Dutch settlement also beyond the Buffalo, and below the Drakenberg.

run in a straight line. It makes a bold zig-zag, and is very much what might have been formed if some upland race of giants had thrown up there a mighty bastioned rampart to prevent the further encroachment of colonization and civilization. Towards the northern end this rocky line of fortification juts into the territory of the Free-state as a re-entering, or retiring angle; towards the southern end it projects as a salient angle into the colony, and in the direction of the sea. The upper, or northern stretch of the colony thus possesses a much broader range than the region towards the south. Nearly three-fourths of the Drakenberg boundary is bent into the retiring angle, and gives the wide elbow-room to these upland districts.

From the extreme depth of the retiring angle of the Drakenberg, a mountain-stream pitches down over the precipitous ledge, nearly two thousand feet in a direct fall, and then flows on towards the east, receiving tributary after tributary on either hand. It is in this abrupt way that the supreme river-potentate of Natal, the Tugela, makes its entrance into colonial life. For nearly two-thirds of its course, it runs through the midst of colonial territory, fed by rivers which issue from the sides of the retiring angle of the Drakenberg. The "*Klip*," or Stone River, the Sunday River, and the Buffalo River, on the one hand; and the Little Tugela, the Great Bushman's River, and the Mooi ("beautiful") River, on the other hand. For the remaining and lower third of its course the Tugela is the boundary of the colony.

The land which lies on either bank of the Upper Tugela, between the sides of the retiring angle of the Drakenberg and the fork where the Buffalo, Upper Tugela, and Mooi Rivers meet, comprises a very considerable upland district, which is termed the Klip River County on the north, and Weenen County, or the County of Weeping, on the south of the Tugela.

The salient angle of the Drakenberg is finished by a bold, three-peaked outwork, which presents a remarkable battlemented front to the lower lands, and is thence called "The Giant's Castle."* The left flank of this outwork sends down feeders to the Great Bushman's River and the Tugela. From the right flank, a distinct watershed originates, which supplies a river that

* Named by Captain Gardiner.

flows down to the sea, parallel with the Umzimkulu, but some thirty or forty miles further to the north. This stream is the Umkomanzi (“*Standing River*”).

About thirty miles sea-ward of the salient angle of the Drakenberg and the Giant’s Castle there rises a bold range of eminences, known under the designation of the “Spijienkop (*spying-top*) Hills.” From the lower declivities of these hills a second-class river issues, to become, in its downward progress, the central stream of the colony. This is the “Umgeni” (*River of the Entrance*), which empties itself into the sea, four miles to the north of Durban, the port of Natal. Around the upper feeders of the Umgeni, and between it and the Umkomanzi, stretches the county of Maritzburg, having the metropolitan city of the same name in its midst. The strip of coast-land, lying between the Umgeni and the Umkomanzi, and extending some twenty miles inland, constitutes the county of Durban. Two comparatively small streams, the Illovo (*glare*) and the Umlazi (*River of Whey*), drain through the midst of these counties. Between the Umgeni and the Tugela the land is divided into the upland county of the Umvoti and the sea-coast county of Victoria. The river Umvoti (*Soft River*) descends to the sea through these counties. These broad features of the distribution and arrangement of the rivers and land are roughly placed before the eye in the accompanying map. The most thickly settled parts are left white in the plan, and the portions of the colony reserved for the native are coloured most deeply.

The land which lies at the immediate foot of the Drakenberg ledge is between three and four thousand feet above the level of the sea. From this the country slopes continuously downwards, towards the ocean. The descent is, however, made in the main by three abrupt steps, so that the colony is distributed into four irregular terraces, or more properly into three terraces, and a sea-coast basement or floor. Of these terraces, the highest or “*Upland*” one stretches from the Drakenberg to within fifty miles of the sea. The intermediate or “*Midland*” terrace has an average breadth of about twenty miles, and an average height of about two thousand feet. The city of Maritzburg stands at the northern extremity of this central terrace, in the midst of

undulating green slopes, with the declivities of the higher steppe immediately overhanging it towards the north-east. The lower terrace is fifteen miles wide, and eight hundred feet high, and from its edge the eye roams over the luxuriantly foliated region which intervenes between the bottom of its ledge and the sea, and which constitutes the Littoral, or "*Sea-coast*" district. It is one happy consequence of this peculiar arrangement of the face of the country, that the small colony of Natal enjoys a surprising range of climate within its comparatively narrow dimensions. The Sea-coast lands comprised within the Littoral strip, and many sheltered spots on the terrace immediately above, ripen the sugar cane, the coffee berry, the arrow root, the banana, the pine apple, and the orange, in almost tropical luxuriance, and are green with never-failing foliage throughout the year. In the Midland and Upland terraces frost is seen on the ground in the early morning, and snow upon the hill-tops, during the season of mid-winter; and corn, with other familiar productions of the English soil, readily make themselves at home. In these regions, horses and cattle also thrive, and flocks are just making their appearance among the herds.

The natural terraces of Natal have not, however, been smoothly finished, and evenly laid. Nature does not work like the mason, because her object is an altogether different one. The traveller who climbs these steps can hardly make out the facts of their general plan by the eye-glance. He has to deduce the notion from a series of isolated positions and reflections. The land, as has been already intimated, has been disturbed again and again, and the terraced steps have been heaved this way and that; they are consequently now battered and bent, traversed by cracks and notched by deep gorges through which the insinuating water finds its way, carving rugged channels for itself among the fragments of rock, and ever and anon making some bold leap to gain the lower level. Water-falls in Natal are almost as plentiful as blackberries. Even where the streams hold the more quiet tenor of their way across the floor of the steppes, they flow with great force and rapidity, surging along stony ground through a wilderness of half-worn boulders. The sides of the ravines, or "*kloofs*" (*clefts*) as they are provincially

termed, are for the most part clothed with dense masses of foliage, from the midst of which lofty evergreens rear their heads. The edges of the terraces are also more or less lipped, or turned up; the ascending traveller goes down into shallow valleys after he has mounted steep hills. The more open slopes are invariably covered by a coarse pasture, and here and there are dotted over by dwarf flat-topped bushes of the thorny mimosa. This pasture in the early spring is emerald green, and variegated by the white and gaily-coloured blossoms of aloes, amaryllids, and other bulbous plants. In the autumn the hill-sides and valleys are russet brown, and in places look almost like English corn-fields at the approach of harvest, in consequence of the abundant crops which they bear of the tall tamboti grass,—the staple resource of the thatcher. In the dry months of winter, they are hieroglyphiced at night by the flame-characters of the fires which are continually set going at that season, to do the work of the scythe in the removal of the coarse growth; and by day they are mottled with the resulting sable, which adds to, rather than detracts from, the picturesqueness of the scenery, by the ever-varying diversity of its shades and tints.

It is one highly important consequence of the way in which the terrace steps of the land are broken and bent, that little oases of tropical luxuriance are introduced into the heart of the uplands. There is a nook of this kind at Weenen, seventy miles further from the sea than Maritzburg, where the orange is ripened to perfection. Indeed, there are in the higher upland two vast valley districts, with the water-shed running opposite ways (in the one towards the Umkomanzi and in the other towards the Tugela), in which it is confidently anticipated the sugar-cane will be yet found to succeed. There have not at present been any trustworthy observations made as to the actual height of the floor of these upland valleys above the sea-level, or as to their actual mean temperatures. There is, however, no doubt that much of the effect is due to the depressions being sheltered from the influence of the most chilling winds, and to the rays of the fierce sun, therefore telling continuously and powerfully in sustaining a warm temperature in the ground. Where

valleys of these uplands run in the direction of the cool winds, the same result is not found. At any rate, this peculiarity of the conformation of the land, promises to increase very largely the field for successful enterprize within the colony.

Water courses and running streams are abundant throughout Natal, and during the summer period of thunder-storms their channels are kept constantly and copiously charged. The coast land is a perfect fringe of rivers. Twenty-three distinct streams empty themselves into the sea along the hundred and fifty miles of coast. Of these rivers three, the Umzimkulu, the Umkomanzi, and the Tugela, have courses of from one to two hundred miles, and are Drakenberg born. Three others, the Umlazi, the Umgeni, and the Umvoti, have their sources in the upland terrace. The rest are altogether confined to the lower terraces and to the coast-lands. There is no navigable river among them. Excepting at the period of highest flood, even the Tugela may be forded on horseback. This defect is, however, amply compensated for by the more abundant irrigation that is furnished everywhere throughout the land, compared with what would be, if there were one main or central valley of drainage in the place of the myriad of partial ones. The water is lower in the rivers in winter than in summer time, but the channels of the large streams are never dry. In the rainless season, these streams are fed by the heavy dews which are necessarily evoked from the combined influences of the warm days and cold nights. To the abundance of running water, and to the rapid slope of the land from the Drakenberg to the sea, leading to the rapid movement of the streams, Natal is, in a great measure, indebted for its healthiness, unquestionably great when this colony is compared with other lands, possessing a position similar to itself in latitude.

CHAPTER II.

THE EARLY DAYS OF NATAL.

ON the eighth day of July, in the year 1497, Vasco de Gama, the renowned navigator and future "Admiral of the Indian, Persian, and Arabian Seas," set sail from Lisbon upon an important expedition, having a squadron of three small ships under his command. Ten years previously, his countryman, Bartholomew Diaz, had reached and rounded the "Stormy Cape" (*Cabo Tormentoso*) of Southern Africa, afterwards better known as the Cape of Good Hope. Five years previously Columbus had put the maritime enterprise of Portugal upon its mettle, by the discovery of America.

The Portuguese navigators had on these accounts become doubly anxious at this time to achieve the task which the doubling of the Cape of Good Hope seemed to have placed within their power; namely, the reaching of India, previously known through the adventurous over-land journeys of the Venetian and Genoese traders, by what was conceived to be the eastern sea route. King Emanuel, of Portugal, under the influence of this combination of incitements, commissioned Vasco de Gama to proceed round the "Stormy Cape" of Diaz, and push on until the desired land of silk and of ivory was gained. The bold adventurer, in pursuance of his instructions, accomplished the first portion of his task on the 19th of November, 1497, and rounded the Cape of Good Hope in a tempestuous sea, his combined force of sixty men being hardly kept in heart for further progress after their rough handling, by the firmness and intrepidity of their commander. For several months after this the little squadron pushed on towards the North-east, through the Indian Sea, touching at one

Moorish settlement on the main African coast, by the way. On the 25th day of December, the Portuguese mariners were in sight of a beautiful shore, backed by undulating verdant slopes, and according to some accounts were actually off the inlet of smooth water, now forming the harbour of the colony. The pleasant-looking land was at once named, in honor of the sacred day, "The Land of the Nativity" ("*Terra Natalis*.") The squadron of Vasco de Gama, pursued its voyage to a successful end. On the 20th of May, 1498, the anchors were dropped before the Moorish port of Calicut, on the western shore of the Deccan, and Indian land was stretched before the eager and admiring eyes of the adventurers. Natal was thus first seen by Europeans during the voyage of discovery which opened out the Eastern sea-route to Hindostan.

It is a note-worthy fact that upon old maps, two promontories are marked, nearly upon the 31st and 32nd parallels of south latitude, and far to the south of the present boundary of the Natalian territory, as the "first and second points of Natal." Between them there appears another Cape, bearing the name of "*The Point of Natal*." It is a fair inference from these facts, that the Portuguese "Land of the Nativity" extended over a very large range of coast, if it were not really altogether to the south of the existing British Colony. This region was also known to the early Portuguese navigators as the Land of Smoke, (*Terra di Fumo*) in consequence of the fuliginous clouds which were constantly seen rolling sky-wards from the burning grass. The historically appropriate name selected by the Portuguese discoverers is now, however, restricted to considerably narrower limits. The old points of Natal now lie upon the shore of the independent territory further to the south; and "Natal" is the British dependency which is included between the rivers Umzimkulu and Tugela.

During the two centuries which followed the discovery of the Natalian coast by the Portuguese, it was occasionally visited by passing mariners. Its soil was first pressed by British feet, in the year 1683. An English ship was wrecked in that year further to the north, near the indentation known as Delagoa Bay. The shipwrecked crew of 80 men made their way

along the land, and through Natal, to the Cape of Good Hope, and carried with them to that settlement, an interesting account of the regions they had travelled over. Three years subsequently the Dutch ship '*Stavenisse*' was wrecked in what is now the bay of Natal, and its stranded crew spent twelve months, near the present site of Durban, in building a small vessel from the fragments of the wreck. The little vessel ultimately sailed for Table Bay ; but when it did so, it left four Englishmen and a Frenchman behind. Three of these men were afterwards taken on board a Dutch vessel visiting the coast, and were of course able to communicate much exact information concerning the locality in which they had sojourned. The commander of the Dutch ship purchased land, near the Bay of Natal, of a native chief ; at a subsequent period the land was claimed on behalf of the purchaser ; but the chieftain who had made the sale was dead, and his successor declined to ratify the bargain. The Dutch made a settlement at Port Natal, in 1721, but soon after abandoned the spot.

In the year 1823, Lieutenant Farewell, an officer of the Royal British Marines, visited St. Lucia and Natal, during the progress of an exploring voyage, upon which he was engaged. Having returned to Cape Town after his voyage, with a very favourable impression as to the character of Natal, he endeavoured to organize a scheme for its colonization. He gathered together a company of about twenty individuals, who agreed to engage in the enterprize. The British Government declined to recognize or aid the scheme ; but the little band, nevertheless, proceeded in its work. Mr. Fynn preceded the rest of the adventurers, to open negotiations with the powerful Zulu chief, Chaka, who at the time exercised supreme sway over the land. He erected huts, for the reception of the party, upon the site of what is now the Market-square of the borough of Durban, and soon after he was joined by Lieutenant Farewell and his associates, who arrived there by sea.

When the Portuguese and Dutch first visited the territory which is now recognized as Natal, they found the country thickly peopled by a friendly and gentle race, living in orderly communities under the rule of their chiefs. When Lieutenant

Farewell's expedition landed in 1824, matters were greatly changed. A warlike chieftain from the north had then subjugated the land, and had either carried away the broken remnants of the conquered tribes, to incorporate them in small bodies among his own followers, or had dispersed and driven them as fugitives into other lands. Many of the descendants of these fugitives are now settled as residents within the Cape colony, where they are known under the distinctive name of "*Fingoes*," a designation that originated in a derisive epithet ("*Am a fengu*"), with which they were greeted by the frontier Kafirs. But the aboriginal tribes of Natal thus ceased to have a separate and national existence. They are now either exiles, or transformed into subjects of the Zulu king by amalgamation with his older followers.

Before the beginning of the present century, the now powerful Zulu tribe seems to have been scarcely known in South-Eastern Africa. It was at that time located some distance to the north of the Tugela, under its chief, Senzagakona, and was but a small and unimportant clan. A son of the chief was driven away from the tribe, when but an infant, with his mother, and both were received and protected by the large and strong neighbouring tribe of the Umtetwas. The chieftain of the Umtetwas, Dingiswayo, for some reason adopted the fugitive infant as his own, and in process of time the infant grew up, and when Senzagakona died, succeeded to the Zulu chieftainship, under the protection and patronage of Dingiswayo. This young client of Dingiswayo was no other than Chaka, the afterwards notorious king of the Zulus.

It appears that upon a given occasion Chaka accompanied his patron, Dingiswayo, as a tributary and ally, in a foray made upon a neighbouring tribe. In this raid Dingiswayo was slain, and Chaka led the allied forces of the Umtetwas and Zulus victorious out of the battle, to become supreme chieftain of the two. Dingiswayo had no direct heir, and was succeeded by his protégé and adopted son. This was the first step of the Zulu race towards its position of ultimate power and supremacy.

The young chieftain of the combined clans proved to be a genius of the Napoleonic class. He very soon turned his entire

energies to the amplification of his sway. He carried forward this object by attacking tribe after tribe, and by absorbing the conquered, as far as he could, into his own following. In working out the scheme of his ambition he introduced several very remarkable reforms into the art of barbarian warfare. He banded his warriors into regiments, distinguished from each other by the colour and pattern of their shields. He also taught his men to wield the single short assegai in close personal conflict, instead of putting their trust as of old in the long javelin hurled from afar ; and the warrior who returned from the fight without assegai and shield in his hand, or who bore the mark of a wound upon his back, did so to the forfeit of his life. His warriors were forbidden to marry, because domestic ties were conceived to soften and enervate. But after a certain period of service, old regiments were superannuated as veterans, and furnished with wives, and new levies were raised to take their place in the ranks. In actual fight the army was marshalled into a sort of compact Macedonian phalanx, in which there was a main central body, protected on either hand by advanced wings. Whenever a squadron was sent out upon service, its destination was kept profoundly secret from the warriors until they were far upon their way. The armies of Chaka marched under sealed orders, so to speak. If at any time a military expedition returned from a campaign foiled or without success, the unsuccessful regiments were either decimated or destroyed, according to the gravity of their delinquency. Such, in general terms, was the military system which this remarkable barbarian conceived as an instrument for the furtherance of his personal ambition.

Wherever there was black mail to be levied, or an independent clan to be "eaten up," within reach of the short javelins, and stealthy feet of his warriors, the disciplined forces of Chaka sooner or later appeared. By slow degrees every tribe between Delagoa Bay and the river of St. John was reduced into subjection to the victorious despot, and Zululand became a wide kingdom, some five hundred miles across. When Lieutenant Farewell landed at the Bay of Natal in 1824, Chaka was at the summit of his power, and had one large military kraal on the banks of the

Umhlali, where the sugar-cane of the so-called Chaka works now waves. At that time a few fugitives still lurked, as the sole representatives of the native population, in concealment in the dense bush, cultivating small patches of maize by stealth in the retirement of the ravines, or subsisting entirely upon wild roots and shell-fish. Away from the military posts of the Zulu conqueror, the entire country was a desert.

The first attempt to open communications with the Zulu despot, on behalf of the band of English adventurers, was made in the year 1823, before the arrival of the main body. After somewhat prolonged diplomacy, a sanction was then accorded to Mr. H. Fynn, to form a settlement at the Bay, and the English negociator was finally raised to the dignity of a subordinate chieftainship. Mr. Fynn then proceeded to bring together under his authority and protection, such of the natives of the district as he could induce to come forth from their hiding-places.

In the year 1828, by one of those revolutions which seem to visit epidemically all states, whether civilized or barbarian, Chaka's term of power came to a sudden and violent end. He was murdered by one of his subordinate chiefs at the instigation of his brother Dingaan, while sitting with two or three companions in his hut. Dingaan first settled himself comfortably in his brother's seat, and then proceeded to take a lesson from his book. He summoned such chiefs as had been marked for fidelity to his brother to appear before him, and among the rest the English settlers at the Bay. Mr. Fynn, having a shrewd suspicion of the meaning of the summons, declined to obey it, and Dingaan consequently sent down a regiment of his soldiers to look after the recusants. Before the undesirable visitors arrived at the Bay, however, the white settlers were far on their way towards the Umzimkulu; which they ultimately crossed, but with the loss of their cattle, cut off by the pursuers during the night. Mr. Fynn remained to the south of the Umzimkulu until an arrangement had been effected with Dingaan, and then returned to the old settlement. In 1831 he was "great chief" of the Natal Kafirs, under the recognition of the new Zulu king.

About the year 1835, several important changes occurred. The great chief, Mr. Fynn, accepted a government appointment on the frontier of the Cape Colony, and for the time turned his back upon Natal. Lieutenant Farewell was dead, and Captain Allen Gardiner came to the settlement at the Bay, in the hope of opening out a field of missionary enterprise in the land. An American mission had already pitched its tents on the soil, comprising within its ranks the Reverend Aldin Grout, who is still pursuing his labours in the colony at the present day. So early as the year 1827, refugee Kafirs had begun to flock back into the deserted land, under the guarantee of the presence of the pale faces, to seek safety from the violence of their own rulers. Some of these refugees came from the north, and some from the south. In 1836, there were 1000 adult male Kafirs in Natal, ranged under the slowly multiplying English, to whom they gave allegiance as their chiefs. In 1838, the white chiefs could muster a Kafir following of 2100 men, armed with shields, assegais, or guns. There was at that time a Kafir population gathered round the English of about 10,000 individuals.

When Captain Gardiner first came to Natal in 1835, he entered into a treaty with the reigning Zulu king, Dingaan, which stipulated that all Kafirs, who were at that time residing in Natal as fugitives, should have an amnesty accorded them, but that for the future, refugees from the ranks of the king should not receive countenance from the English settlers, but should be sent back to their lawful chief. At a subsequent period, Captain Gardiner, upon one occasion, in a spirit of fealty to the stipulations of the agreement, took back a large body of refugees to Dingaan, and had the wretchedness of seeing the entire band put to death before his eyes. Previous to this sad occurrence, however, Captain Gardiner had made a voyage to England, and had returned, bringing back with him an agent of the Church Missionary Society, in the person of a clergyman named Owen. Mr. Owen was permitted to take up his residence near to the principal royal kraal of Dingaan, established at Umgungunhlovu, far up in Zululand, near the sources of the river which flows down into St. Lucia Bay.

A new party of actors have here to be introduced upon the

scene. About the time of Captain Gardiner's first visit to Natal, a large body of the Dutch farmers, who were living under British rule in the old Cape Colony, had taken offence at certain restrictions placed upon them in regard to their relations with the coloured population, and had determined to shift their quarters beyond British sway. An advanced party of these men under leaders, among whom were two individuals bearing the now historical names of Uys and Maritz, explored the way to the Bay of Natal, and received a friendly welcome from the small band of English settled there. The result of this preliminary visit was that in the early part of the year 1836, a numerous party of Dutch emigrants, under the guidance of Jacobus Uys, Hendrick Potigeyter, and Pieter Retief, descended into Natal by a central pass through the Drakenberg, which Retief had discovered, and joined the British at the Bay. They were welcomed as a very seasonable and valuable addition to the small party. Captain Gardiner had proposed shortly after his return from England, to exercise magisterial authority over the young settlement; but his proposal had been at once declined, and the Dutch and English seem to have now fraternized together as members of an independent community. Retief proceeded to Umgungunhlovu, beyond the Tugela, to negotiate with Dingaan for a cession of territory in Natal to the Dutch settlers, and was considerably aided in his negotiation by the good offices of the missionary, Mr. Owen. It was agreed that Retief should recover for the king a quantity of oxen which a predacious Mantatee chief had taken from him, and that in return a large district should be ceded to the Dutch. Retief having with him a band of seventy armed horsemen, beside Hottentot attendants, proceeded at once to fulfil his share of the agreement. He visited the chief Sikougella, near the sources of the Caledon, beyond the Drakenberg, and induced him to make restitution of the oxen, and returned to Dingaan with seven hundred head of cattle and sixty horses. A treaty was then formally drawn up by Mr. Owen, and executed by Dingaan and his principal chiefs; but before Retief could carry off his prize, he and his entire party were assailed treacherously, and murdered, by the wily Zulu. The Dutch were first invited into

the kraal to take a parting cup with the king, and incautiously left their arms outside the royal inclosure, as the native etiquette required they should do when coming within its privileged precincts. In their unarmed state they were set upon by some thousands of warriors placed in ambush for their reception, and were dispatched with clubs. Dingaan, imagining that he had broken the strength of the unwelcome intruders into his territory by this blow, immediately sent an army over the Tugela, to complete the work of extermination. The Zulu forces spread themselves widely over the land, and attacked simultaneously several parties of white settlers in the upland districts. They surprised a considerable encampment of the Dutch, where the township of Weenen is now fixed, and murdered women and children as well as men. The present name of the place, "Weenen," is the sad memorial of this occurrence. It is the Dutch word for the verb "to weep." Another party were at the same time butchered on the banks of the Blaaukranz, nearer to the Tugela. As, however, the victorious Zulus penetrated further to the south, they came into collision with parties, who had been warned by the few that had escaped from the first brunt of the attack, and who had taken refuge in the extemporized waggon-fortifications, which are known in South Africa as "Laagers," and were by these held effectually in check. The English at the Bay endeavoured to make a diversion in behalf of their Dutch friends, and sent a small party with 700 natives across the Tugela. This party also was entrapped and destroyed by Dingaan, and the remaining English had to take refuge from a visit of retaliation, on board a vessel which happened to be at anchor in the Bay. By this time some 400 more Dutchmen had descended into the Klip river district of Natal, and combining with such of their countrymen as had been able to withstand the irruption of the Zulus, they advanced towards Umgungunhlovu in a compact body. They also were caught by Dingaan in a sort of trap, being surrounded by an overwhelming force, from which they only managed to escape after a severe hand-to-hand struggle, and after leaving a considerable number of their party dead on the field.

The defeated Dutch retired into Laagers, and made the best

arrangements for defence that circumstances allowed. Reinforcements from beyond the Drakenberg dropped into their encampments day by day. In August of the year 1838, Dingaan burst in upon them once more, but they were then able to maintain their intrenched positions, and to repel the attack. By December, they found themselves strong enough to resume the offensive, and 460 fighting men under Andries Pretorius and Carl Landman, then advanced across the Tugela, and gave Dingaan battle near the Umslatoos river. Upon this occasion they encountered the entire forces of the Zulu king, amounting to some twelve thousand men, and after a severe conflict, entirely cut them up, leaving, according to one estimate, not less than three thousand of their enemies dead upon the ground. Dingaan concealed himself in the bush, but his extensive kraal of Umgungunhlovu was burnt to the ground, and the successful emigrants retired across the Tugela, driving 5000 head of cattle before them. Soon after this decisive victory, the Dutch emigrants began fairly to settle themselves in the land they had won. The towns of Durban and Maritzburg were planned by parties of the Dutch emigrants in the year 1839. In that year six houses appeared where Maritzburg city now stands.

Not long subsequently to Dingaan's defeat near the Umslatoos river, his younger brother, Panda, was living on the Natal side of the Tugela, in a kind of exile, surrounded by a party of dependants, which had reason in common with himself, to fear being too near to Dingaan. There is no doubt that, at this time, Panda was, as the younger brothers of the Zulu kings generally are, an object of jealousy and suspicion to the monarch. Accordingly, he sagaciously made overtures to his white neighbours to form with them a friendly alliance. At first his advances were viewed with suspicion, for emissaries of Dingaan were continually encountered engaged upon the work of observation. Finally, however, an alliance was formed, and this led to a combined expedition, in which 4000 of Panda's men were supported by 400 mounted Dutchmen under Pretorius. Dingaan was again attacked and defeated by this force, and soon after fell beneath the assegais of a hostile tribe, while seeking concealment somewhere near Delagoa Bay. Upon the final defeat

of Dingaan, the Dutch emigrants proclaimed their ally Panda king of the Zulus, and themselves masters of the land from St. Lucia Bay to the St. John's River, and from the Drakenberg to the sea; a tract far exceeding in dimensions the stretch of the colony as existing at the present time. Panda also gave the Dutch emigrants 36,000 head of cattle, as his subsidy for their aid. It must be admitted, therefore, that the white-skinned members of the alliance did not manifest any disinclination to appropriate the lion's share of the spoil. Panda was proclaimed king of the extra-Natalian Zulus, on the 14th of February, 1840.

The policy of the British Government in relation to Natal does not seem to have been very decided up to this time. Immediately after the first victory of the Dutch emigrants over Dingaan, at the close of the year 1838, a small detachment of British troops was landed at the Bay, under the command of Major Charteris. This detachment was sent to Natal by Sir George Napier, who had just succeeded Sir Benjamin D'Urban in the government of the Cape, to prevent the Dutch emigrants from the Cape Colony, who were held to be still British subjects, from acquiring independent territory of the natives. By the judicious management of Captain Jervis, who remained in command of this detachment, the Dutch emigrants were soon brought to feel its presence a benefit rather than an injury, and cordial relations were established between the British soldiers and the settlers. In the following year the British troops were withdrawn from Durban, in consequence of the disinclination of the Home Government of that time to take any decided steps for the retention of the territory under its own rule. On leaving, Captain Jervis addressed a letter to the Dutch Landdrost, at the Bay, expressing the most friendly feeling towards the young community, and the best wishes for its ultimate prosperity and success. The Dutch settlers considered the departure of Captain Jervis in the light of an abandonment of all claims to the territory on the part of the British Government, and immediately hoisted the colours of what they thenceforth termed the "Republic of Natalia."

When, however, the British Government heard of this proceeding of the emigrants in Natal, it refused to recognize their

independence, and informed them that it still continued to claim their obedience and fealty, although it had withdrawn the military force and the British ensign. The Dutch maintained the position which they had assumed, and after a prolonged negotiation, the affair finally issued in two hundred soldiers, and two field pieces, under the command of Captain Smith, being marched from the frontiers of the old Cape Colony, down to Port Natal. The Dutch received the military forces with demonstrations of intended hostility, and Captain Smith established himself in an entrenched camp close by the situation of the present town of Durban. Reinforcements now came down from the uplands to strengthen the Dutch, and Pretorius assumed the command of his countrymen. The Dutch camp was formed at Congella, about three miles from the British position. Captain Smith summoned the emigrants to disperse, but they evaded the summons by a mere pretence of submission, and actual hostilities were commenced on the 23rd of May, in the year 1842, eleven days after the renewed occupation of the British, by the Dutch seizing about sixty oxen belonging to the Queen's troops. On the same night, Captain Smith marched out to Congella with one hundred of the Infantry and two guns; but after a severe conflict was repulsed by the Dutch, who were in great force and strongly posted, with the loss of several men, and both the guns. Three days subsequently the Dutch seized "The Point," which was the natural communication of the British with the harbour, and also two small vessels, the *Mazeppa* and the *Pilot*, which were lying in the inner Bay. Captain Smith, with his small and insufficient force, was now completely blockaded within his entrenchments. He accordingly made all the dispositions he was able to sustain a siege, and managed to send off a despatch to the old colony, intimating his need of help. This service was performed through the prompt and energetic co-operation of Mr. George Cato, at that time a resident at the Bay. Captain Smith applied to him to find native messengers for the conveyance of the despatch, and Mr. Cato answered by offering to be its bearer in his own person. The captain preferred retaining him on the spot, and Mr. Cato accordingly deputed the arduous task to Mr. King, smuggling him across the inner

bay, and swimming two horses over the same piece of water for the messenger's use. The adventurers were fired upon by the Dutch while effecting this passage, and were pursued. But Mr. King managed to get safely away, and accomplished a journey of six hundred miles through a wild land in safety, reaching the frontier of the British territory after eight days of actual travelling. Mr. George Cato in the mean time paid for his loyal and brave service by sitting in the stocks, and lying in bonds. He was seized by the Dutch as the chief agent in the business, and transferred to the prison at Maritzburg. On the 10th of June, sixteen days subsequently to the departure of Mr. King, the *Mazeppa*, under the command of Mr. Joseph Cato, slipped her cable, and made her way out to sea under the fire of the Dutch at the Point, to seek for British cruisers at Delagoa Bay. The *Mazeppa* carried with her women and children from the British camp, who had been allowed by the besiegers to take refuge on board.

In the mean time, Captain Smith, without sufficient shelter for his wounded, and with a limited store of provisions growing less day by day, resolutely sustained the repeated attacks of the Dutch upon his entrenchments. By the 18th of June the little garrison was entirely dependent upon dried horse-flesh, biscuit-dust, and forage corn for its support. On the 24th the commander had the great delight to see signal rockets ascending at night from the outer bay. On the following night there were rockets again still further out to sea. He correctly inferred that these could only indicate that relief was at hand. The *Southampton*, fifty-gun frigate, and the transport schooner, *Conch*, had arrived with reinforcements; the one from the Cape, and the other from Algoa Bay. When the *Mazeppa* returned from its unsuccessful visit to Delagoa Bay in search of aid, Mr. J. Cato found the *Southampton* at anchor off the port. The schooner *Conch*, under the command of Captain Bell, the present port captain at Durban, had been in the act of sailing from Algoa Bay, with a detachment of one hundred men of the 27th Regiment, and a small party of Artillery, with two guns, at the very time that the *Mazeppa* was slipping her cable, and forcing her way out to sea past the Dutch guns at the

Point. The *Conch* happened to lie at Algoa Bay when Mr. King arrived with intelligence of the precarious position of Captain Smith. All available troops were immediately embarked on board the little vessel, by the direction of Colonel Hare, and thus the beleaguered force was joined by reinforcements within thirty days of the despatch of the messenger from Port Natal. The instant the Commander-in-Chief at the Cape received information of the state of affairs, the admiral's flag-ship, the *Southampton*, was despatched with further aid, and made such speed on her errand of help that she cast anchor in the Bay twenty-four hours after the *Conch*. On the 26th of June the relieving detachments were landed under the command of Lieutenant-Colonel Cloete, and a junction was effected with the garrison under Captain Smith. The besiegers were not long in taking the hint, and began immediately to draw off towards the uplands. Negotiation was thenceforth deemed a better weapon than the sword. The Dutch at first took posts near the present position of Pine Town, but soon afterwards retired upon Maritzburg, and sent a deputation to meet Colonel Cloete and propose terms of submission. On the 5th of July the submission of the Dutch was received by the Lieutenant-Colonel in person at Maritzburg, and an amnesty was guaranteed. The greater part of the British troops were then re-embarked on board the *Southampton*, and Captain Smith remained in undisputed possession of Port Natal, and the district between the Berea hills and the sea.

Matters remained generally in this position for some months. But in May, 1843, Mr. Henry Cloete, a brother of the Lieutenant-Colonel, was sent to Natal under the direction of the Imperial Government, as a commissioner to effect a final arrangement of the affairs of the settlement. The Commissioner found considerable irritation and excitement existing among the Dutch at Maritzburg, and deemed it prudent to request an increased military force from the Cape to back him in the course he might find it necessary to adopt. In answer to this demand a detachment of the 45th Regiment was sent down. The allusion to the arrival of these soldiers brings the extreme youth of the Colony of Natal very forcibly and strikingly before the mind. The

head quarters of the 45th Regiment has but just (April, 1859) been removed from Maritzburg, and is on its return voyage to England. Recent settlers in the Colony however continually encounter illustrations of the same fact, by coming in contact with individuals whose names are historical from their connection with the incidents of those early days.

In August, 1843, Mr. Commissioner Cloete found a considerable party of armed Boers, from beyond the Drakenberg, waiting his arrival at Maritzburg. The Dutch entertained a suspicion, that it was the purpose of the British government to assert a claim to the entire district, between the Orange River and the sea. Upon the Commissioner declaring that it was his intention to propose the Drakenberg mountains as the northern limit of British territory, it was decided, by the general assembly of the Dutch, that the settlers from beyond the mountains could have nothing whatever to do with the matter. They were themselves inclined, upon consideration, to take a similar view of their position, and voluntarily withdrew from the deliberative council, and began a retreat towards the North. It was then resolved by the twenty-four members of the Volksraad, or council, who remained to represent the Dutch emigrants to the South of the Drakenberg, that they would acknowledge Natal to be virtually a portion of a British colony, and that they would agree to the conditions that, within the limits of its boundaries, slavery should be forbidden, and that there should be no distinction of colour, origin, language, or creed, recognized in the eye of the law. The Dutchmen, who took the most active part in bringing about the settlement, based upon these conditions, were Andries Pretorius, Stephanus Maritz, Dr. Poortman, P. M. Gietsman, and Mr. Boshof. Natal was in this way recognized by its first Dutch possessors, to be a British dependency, on the 8th of August, 1843, now sixteen years ago. Maritzburg had at that time grown to be the centre of the Dutch settlements below the Drakenberg. But the future city was only in the third year of its age, when it became the seat of this pacification and arrangement. Mr. Mesham, its present resident magistrate, still talks of standing in Maritzburg nineteen

years ago, and having around him, as the sole trace of civilized activity, *six houses*. The kraal of the Kafir chief, Dushani, then stood where one of the principal chemist's shops (*Darney's*) now is. The full and somewhat unwieldy title of the town is Pieter-Maritzburg. This name is compounded of the christian name of one of the emigrants who was particularly active in fixing its foundations, and of the surname of another. Pieter Retief and Goert Maritz have each contributed to the designation of the Natalian metropolis. Maritz, however, seems to have had the better part in the work, for the Pieter is fast disappearing from the connection. The old Dutch pioneers of the land certainly had good eyes for the practical, when selecting a site for their homesteads. It is now a common thing to hear travellers, who have been prospecting far and wide over the lands of the colony, say that they had no where encountered another spot so well calculated for the establishment of a town.

After the submission of the Dutch emigrants to British rule, Natal remained for some time virtually under the charge of Captain Smith, who, with the rank of major, had taken the direction of political and military matters. The management of the civil and judicial affairs of the community being, for the time, left in the hands of the Volksraad.

At the end of the year 1845, the first Lieutenant Governor, Martin West, Esq., arrived from the Cape with the heads of the civil departments, and the Dutch settlers were soon afterwards officially informed of the arrangements, which it was proposed to make, in relation to their claims for land. Many received the intimation with undisguised dissatisfaction, and withdrew to the banks of the Vaal River. Others merely retired to the remote uplands of the Klip River and Weenen districts, and sat themselves down there in scarcely less refractory mood. The number of the Kafir population within Natal, was at this time considerable. Mr. Lewis Grout states that there were not less than 80,000 Kafirs within the British territory, in the year 1846.

In the year 1847, the Dutch Boers, who were residing in the upland district, between the Tugela and the Buffalo Rivers,

advanced an independent claim to the territory, stating that it had been separately sold to them by Panda, and that it had never formed part of the territory ceded to the English. The British government at once refused to allow the claim, and towards the end of the year many of the farmers in that district, in a sort of panic, deserted their homesteads, first formed themselves into encampments, and then migrated beyond the Drakenberg. There is reason to believe that a spirit of disaffection had been roused in these Boers by some of their countrymen residing beyond the Orange River.

In the month of February, in the year 1848, Sir H. Smith, then Governor of the Cape colony, visited Natal as High Commissioner, and offered free grants of land to persons desirous of settling down within its boundaries. This tended to produce a reflux of the tide, and many of the Dutch families, now living within the colony, soon after came down from the Drakenberg. In the year 1849, a scheme was conceived by Mr. J. C. Byrne, in England, for facilitating the introduction of British emigrants. This scheme received the sanction of the home government, and Englishmen began to arrive in Natal in considerable numbers. In its immediate results this scheme of Mr. Byrne's was altogether a failure. The weak point in its conception was that a pastoral land was treated as if it had been a prepared agricultural field. Small allotments of a few acres were parcelled out to the settlers, who found them altogether inadequate for the supply of their immediate wants. The first fruits of the venture were hardship and disappointment to all who were concerned. The ultimate results, however, were widely different from the earliest appearances. Obstacles and difficulties were bravely met and manfully overcome. Scarcely a single individual, who came out under Mr. Byrne's auspices, can be now pointed to who has not succeeded in making a fair base for future progress. Even those who landed destitute of everything, from the shipwrecked and stranded *Minerva*, which was one of the large vessels employed by Mr. Byrne, and which was driven on shore with its living and dead freight beneath the Bluff of Natal, now form a very important portion of the most prosperous tradesmen and

farmers of the colony. About the year 1851, several other English speculators engaged, upon a smaller scale, in sending emigrants to Natal.

In the early part of the year 1851, Sir H. Smith was engaged in hostilities with the frontier Kafirs under Kreli, and requested Lieutenant Governor Pine (who had been sent out to Natal the previous year, in consequence of the death of Lieutenant Governor West, head of affairs in Natal), to send a force of the Natal Kafirs through Kafraria, to create a diversion in his favour. The Lieutenant Governor endeavoured to make arrangements for carrying out this object, but the Natal Kafirs manifested great reluctance to engage in the expedition. This reluctance was viewed with a considerable amount of suspicion at the time, and was in a degree looked upon as a manifestation of disaffection. The expedition was not pressed, and the alarm gradually subsided. This was the last time any serious fears of insubordination, on the part of the Kafir population within the settlement, have been entertained.

Since the year 1851, the young colony has made steady progress, socially and economically. The numbers of the white settlers have been gradually increasing, and attention has been more and more drawn, year by year, to the capabilities of the climate and soil. In April, 1850, the second Lieutenant Governor, Mr. Pine, arrived in Natal, his predecessor having died in the previous year. In the year 1851, several additional magistrates were appointed in the several divisions and counties. In 1853, a Bishop was created by a patent from Her Majesty, and Maritzburg became a city and a Bishop's see. In 1854, municipal corporations were established in Durban and Maritzburg. In 1856, the present Lieutenant Governor, John Scott, Esq., landed in *the Colony of Natal*; that is to say, His Excellency, on the 5th of November in that year, had the gratification of proclaiming Natal a distinct colony under the Royal Charter, which he had brought out with him, providing a Legislative Assembly, of twelve elected and four nominated members. The first Legislative Assembly was dissolved by His Excellency at the close of the past year, after two sessions, in consequence of a manifestation of unwillingness, on the part of

its majority, to acquiesce in the reserve by the government of a fixed annual sum, to be applied to purposes of native improvement. The second Legislative Council has accordingly in the present year, 1859, just completed its first session. It is no bad augury for the future of this young colony, that in the third year of its age, a Superintendent of Education has been appointed, and a sum of £2022 voted for the work of education during the year 1860.

In the year 1856, a feud broke out in Zululand, just beyond the northern boundary of the colony, between the sons of Panda, the Zulu king, which led to a sanguinary struggle among the extra-colonial Zulus, but which also had the effect of illustrating very satisfactorily the prestige of the British power. The conflict took place close to the confines of the colony, and the vanquished party sought refuge by thousands in the British territory;—the boundary stream was nevertheless respected by the victors, even in the first flush of conquest. The remote causes of this struggle can be briefly explained, and the explanation will serve the further purpose of representing the state of affairs existing at the present time in the territory of the most powerful of the independent native tribes residing near to Natal. All the male Zulus above a certain age, are banded into regiments, and these regiments are required by the king to render certain service at the Royal Military kraals. The ordinary service consists mainly in building huts and fences, and in milking and herding the cows belonging to the king. The captains and chief men of the regiments on service are expected to spend their time mainly at the king's residence, or principal kraal, where they have huts; their food being forwarded to them from their own people. The custom of the land is that these chiefs in attendance should receive gratuities of cattle from the king, in recognition of their service. In the time of Chaka and of Dingaan, the payment was easily made. There was then constant war, and there was always abundance of spoil to be divided. Panda, however, came into power in the interests of peace. As soon as he was firmly seated on his throne, he found himself closely hemmed in by his Dutch and English neighbours, and had to depend entirely upon his own internal

resources for carrying on his government. The consequence has been, that the chief men assembled at the king's place have often been in a starving state, and when they have gone home to their own kraals, at the expiration of their court-attendance, they have commonly been forced to do so empty-handed. Now and then, an excuse has been found to get rid of a wealthy subject, in consequence of a snake having made its appearance at some particular spot, or for some other equally pertinent reason, and to constitute the royal person his heir. Panda's soldiers have, nevertheless, had but small pickings since his accession, and have upon more than one occasion had to disperse in search of food for themselves. This state of matters has furnished ground for a growing dissatisfaction with the king. In addition to this, it has pleased Panda to keep his braves unwived, as well as unfed, to an unusually advanced age. The king has also been continually in ill health, and waxing enormously fat. His people have not often seen him, excepting when walking in solitary state at a distance. His captains have rarely been assembled in council, and not uncommonly his orders have been issued to his immediate attendants in such a confused and hasty way, that the recipients have scattered themselves in all directions only to look blank at each other, and wonder what they were after, and what they were expected to do. From these several causes, the idea has gradually been generated in the popular mind that Panda is not a king "after the Zulu heart." He has, nevertheless, been himself personally kept in ignorance of the disaffection of his people, in consequence of the isolated manner in which he has lived, and the unwillingness of those around him to speak with him of unpalatable facts.

After this state of matters had continued at the Zulu court for some time, the king gave permission to his eldest sons to found kraals of their own, and to go to reside in them, in order to relieve the pressure upon his immediate resources. The young men forthwith availed themselves of the permission, and the most disaffected of the king's subjects soon began to pay court to the rising luminaries, and to attach themselves to the persons of these juvenile chiefs. They called this "living under

the tiger's tail," and when, at any time, they were called upon to leave their chosen position, and to go up towards the tiger's head, they considered that this would necessarily bring them more within reach of the tiger's teeth and claws, and so they declined to obey. In this way the parties of the king's sons gradually waxed in strength, but at the same time grew more and more jealous of each other. The two eldest sons, Ketchwago and Umbulazi, ultimately became the rallying points of the dissension. The young men of the tribe, who had heard glowing accounts of the pleasant and profitable days of Chaka and Dingaan, rallied round Ketchwago. The younger sons of the king attached themselves to Umbulazi. Hunting parties were assembled, and the hunters appeared with the large war-shield, instead of with their hunting gear, and assegais began to manifest an inclination towards human breasts, in the place of seeking only quadrupedal prey. A rumour of what was going on at length reached Panda's ears, and he sent for his two sons, and charged them to lay aside their jealousies, and to live together in peace. They demanded to have the people called together to hear and decide their claims. Panda turned a deaf ear to this demand, and for a time kept the younger of the two litigants, Umbulazi, near to him, but at last gave him permission to go towards the Tugela river, and build there. Umbulazi went slowly towards the spot assigned to him, gathering adherents as he went, who all carried the great war-shield, saying that they did so because Ketchwago wanted to destroy their chief. It was generally understood that Panda inclined to favour Umbulazi; this younger prince accordingly became the representative of the old king's party, and Ketchwago the hope of the new movement. He was also looked upon as the real descendant of Dingaan, and as the man who would restore cattle and fatness to the impoverished kraals. At the critical moment, the Prime Minister and Commander-in-chief of Panda, declared for the "White Rose," and went over to Ketchwago, carrying a large body of the king's regiments with him. The final consequence of the embroilment was, that about the beginning of December, 1856, the army of Ketchwago swept down upon Umbulazi's party in three divisions, and, after a

short conflict, dispersed his men. Umbulazi's adherents sought safety by crossing the Tugela, which was swollen at the time; thousands of them consequently fell either under the assegai, or in the flood. Umbulazi, and five other of Panda's sons were slain in the fight. Two young sons of Panda, Usikota and Umkungu (the latter a mere boy), who were not in the fight, escaped into British territory, and are now living in Natal as refugees. The younger of the two, Umkungu, is under the Lord Bishop's care.

After the battle of the Tugela, the old King Panda, became more and more powerless, and the star of Ketchwago more and more in the ascendant. At one time the King was so desolate that Ketchwago had to send him twenty men to serve him. The person of the King was, nevertheless, respected. In the month of November, 1857, a great assembly of the people was called together at the King's kraal, for the adjustment of differences. It was then decided that all party distinctions were thenceforward to be dropped, and that Ketchwago's right to the succession, on Panda's death, should be recognized; Ketchwago being for the present the chief Indiena under the King. It was ruled that Panda was still competent *to think*, but that he was now too old *to move*. Thenceforth, therefore, Panda was to be "*the head*" of the nation, and Ketchwago "*the feet*." All important matters of State were first to be carried to Masipula (the Prime Minister) and Ketchwago; and were then to be referred to Panda for final sanction. The arrangement regarding the succession was, however, a matter of tacit understanding, rather than of definite agreement, because it is high treason in Zululand to recognize in words even the possibility of such an occurrence as the death of the King. It is related of a gentleman, at the present time connected with missionary work, that upon a certain occasion he electrified the entire court of Panda by congratulating the monarch upon his good looks, and adding that he "had heard a report he was dead." Panda himself was for a brief interval mute from horror and alarm; but he then recovered his presence of mind, and with a furtive glance said, "We never speak of such things here;" and so proceeded to change the conversation.

Affairs in Zululand remain pretty much in the same condition up to the present time. Panda is the nominal "head," and Ketchwago the acting "feet." Both parties in the State, the old and the new, continue to have their adherents, and appeals are frequently made to the Colonial Government from each for countenance and recognition. The Government, of course, remains on friendly relations with Panda, as the actual ruler, and observes a strict neutrality in all matters concerning the affairs of Zululand.

A notice of the early days of Natal cannot be concluded without alluding to the efforts in behalf of the Kafir population which have been made, and still are making, through missionary institutions. Establishments and stations belonging to the various denominations are sown broad-cast over the land, and form so many centres whence civilizing influences are spread. The Church of England, the Church of Rome, and the Wesleyans; the Americans, the Prussians, the Hanoverians, and the Norwegians, all have their labourers. In the stations of many of the missionaries of these persuasions and people, training in practical matters is quietly and unobtrusively combined with religious instruction.

CHAPTER III.

THE KAFIR RACES IN NATAL.

THE Kafirs who are met with in Natal are, upon the average, of somewhat lower stature than Englishmen; but they possess well-proportioned and fully-developed frames, combining super-eminently the qualities of activity and strength. The entire race has woolly hair, and some individuals have also the large protruding mouths, thick lips, regular white teeth, and broad flat noses, which are characteristics of the Negro organization. Others, however, have the aquiline nose, straight lip, long beard, retiring chin, and prominent square forehead of the European. The general expression of the face is open, gentle, and amiable. The eye is for the most part dark, soft, and twinkling with merry humour.

There is one peculiarity which at once distinguishes the Kafir race from the Negro variety of dark-skinned Africans. The limbs are singularly small-boned and slender. In young individuals, and especially among the boys, the tapering delicate arms and hands, and the slim legs and slight feet are very remarkable, and catch the attention of even the most careless observer. The Kafir organization obviously vibrates between that of the Negro, and that of a nobler type. The pastoral and nomadic propensities, and the ingrained impatience of constraint of these slim-limbed, agile, and woolly-headed tribes, taken in connection with the fact that they seem to have come originally along the eastern coast of Africa, from the north, point towards the possibility that the same law, which has been made influential in the evolution of the highly-endowed Anglo-Saxon race, through the admixture of bloods, may also have had to do with the production of the Kafir development, and that the remark-

able combination of qualities by which that development is marked, may be attributed, partly to an Arab, and partly to a Negro source. There are certain ceremonies, and words, in use among the Kafirs, which also point to a similar conclusion, on account of the affinities which they present with doings and language encountered among the Arabs. The word which has become sanctioned by custom as the general denomination of these tribes of the South-eastern coast, also carries with it a certain amount of force as additional evidence. "Kafir" means literally an unbeliever in the doctrines of Mahomet, and is a term of constant occurrence with the Arabs.

In his wild and free state the Kafir goes almost entirely naked. He has no other garment than a bunch of strips cut from the skin of the sheep, wild cat, or goat suspended from a slender girdle, as a kind of diminutive apron, in front, and a similar bunch behind. The neck is sometimes ornamented by a collar formed of the teeth and claws of the lion and leopard, or the claws of the eagle, allowed by the chief to be worn as an order of merit in reward for some especial act. Sometimes a necklace of fragments of a particular kind of root takes the place of the claws, to indicate that the wearer has killed his antagonist in fight. The arms of distinguished men are also ornamented by bracelets of brass, generally the gift of the supreme Chief. The ears are pierced with wide gashes, into which are stuck the snuff-box, composed of a fragment of hollow reed, and other personal conveniences. The Kafir hardly ever moves from his hut without having his buckler of ox-skin, five or six assegais, and a knobbed club in his hands. This habit has probably been in a measure formed by the chance of an encounter with some fierce wild animal at any instant. At night the Kafir wraps himself in a well-greased ox-skin, or blanket. For war he has plumed and furred robes of considerable complexity.

As soon as the Kafir has arrived at the dignity of hut-ownership, and the possession of wives, he shaves his head, excepting along a narrow track extending quite round the crown. Along that track the hair is dressed and worked up with gum until it constitutes a black polished coronet or ring. These head-rings serve for the support of feathers, and other kinds of

ornament; they generally indicate that the wearer has attained to independent manhood, and in this sense require the special sanction of the Chief before they can be assumed. The young unmarried men invariably wear their hair fuzzy and long, and dress it after a variety of fashions.

The Kafir women, who are married, wrap a small fragment of skin round their loins; this rude garment, however, falls towards their feet, in a greater or less degree, in proportion to their rank. They have necklaces of beads, and brass rings for their arms. The head is bare, excepting where a small tuft of hair, well incorporated with red dust or powder, is left at the summit of the crown. The young girls wear nothing but a narrow fringe across their loins, and a collar of gay beads. The children are left entirely naked, up to about the seventh year of age.

The men of the Kafir race reserve their thews chiefly for war and the chase. They take care of the cattle, milk the cows, build the huts, clear the ground, and cut down timber with the axe; but with the exception of these, in their eyes, not undignified occupations, they engage in no other kind of labour. It falls to the lot of the women to perform all the rest of the necessary work. The females dig and hoe, sow and reap, prepare the food, fetch water and wood, and keep the huts in repair. A man's fortune depends mainly upon the number of his cattle, and of his wives and daughters, who bring him a settlement in cattle when they are married. The wife works for the advantage of the family, and has a hut in the kraal to herself. She also advances in dignity as new dependants are added to her husband's establishment. The children speak of the several wives of their father as their "mothers." The Kafir knows nothing of immovable property. The crops are personal possessions, but the ground is common to all.

The dwelling of the Kafir is simply a hemispherical hut of boughs and reeds, looking very much like a Brobdignag beehive. It has a low-arched door, through which its inhabitants creep upon their hands and knees. It is tolerably commodious within, and has a kind of flat basin of clay in the centre, which is used for the hearth. Round this hearth the inhabi-

tants squat upon their haunches, when making themselves comfortable and snug. The huts are generally planted in circles upon some natural slope, which is sufficiently inclined to allow water to run away from the buildings. A space is generally fenced round in the centre of the circle of the huts, as a pen for the cattle. The huts themselves are inclosed within a continuous hedge, intended to provide seclusion.

The Kafirs live almost entirely upon the produce of their gardens, and upon the milk of their cows. Their gardens yield maize, Kafir corn, (*millet*) pumpkins, gourds, water melons, potatoes, sweet potatoes, beans, sesanaum seed, earth-nuts, sweet cane, (*imphee*) wild tobacco, and wild hemp. The Kafirs cultivate no kind of tree.

The Kafir has no family, or surname. He is distinguished by a single appellation, and very great ingenuity is exercised in providing this name. The children have in the first instance, a birth-name given to them. This is taken from some occurrence or circumstance associating itself with the birth. Thus, "Umgodi" is "the boy who was born in a hole." In adult years the birth-name is superseded by the name of praise, which is acquired either from some honourable act, or from some personal trait. Thus, "Umgingisago" is "the hunter who caused the game to roll over." "Umomoye," is "the man with a broad face." "Usireshe," is "the man with a big beard." A lady of the writer's acquaintance, who moves habitually with a brisk staccato step, was at once named among the Kafirs "Unomaqekeqekana;" that is "one who goes off, or moves in little cracks"—or as it might be literally translated—"cracklegait." Another lady, a clergyman's daughter, who keeps her eyes about, and has the habit of unconsciously looking quickly from side to side, is "Unomaqalagala"—that is "one who looks out into all directions in order to see."

Kafirs, in common with all uncultured men, are slaves to particular superstitions. They are learned in augury. It is a bad omen for a rock-rabbit to run into a kraal, or for a dog to get upon the top of a hut, or for a turkey buzzard to be caught in a snare. A general belief prevails that certain evil-disposed

persons are able to work harm to individuals around them by supernatural means. These persons are called "*Abatakati*," which has been translated by some authorities as signifying "witches" or "wizards." These terms, however, do not adequately express the meaning. The *abatakati* are sometimes evil-doers, in the sense of being criminals against the Kafir code of propriety and right. At other times they seem to possess more vague and mysterious functions. Thus in Panda's land, it is held that immediately on the decease of a native they hunt after the body, in order that they may employ it in a kind of demoniac work, and use wild cats and leopards as assistants in the search. When a body is discovered, it is immediately physicked until it is restored to life. If the evil-doer is caught in the act of restoration, and interrupted in the work, the half-restored individual returns to life as a half-witted or stupid being. But when the tongue has been duly cut off, and the restoration is complete, it becomes at once an "*umkovu*," (*spectre or hobgoblin*,) and is sent to join the *umkovu* band, and to wait until it is needed for goblin employment. Under the direction of the evil-doer, the *umkovu* then goes in the dead of the night to the neighbourhood of an inhabited kraal, and shouts "*Maya*" (*Woe! woe! to the house of my father!*) The "*Maya*" is a death-doom to some one, and when it is heard, the inhabitants of the kraal remain terror-struck and motionless. It would be certain death for any one to speak, or to move hand or foot; a very convenient fact at any rate for the goblin messenger, as affording him a sure guarantee against interference whilst engaged on his errand of doom.

The Kafir, in his native state, lives under the rule of a supreme chief, who has power of life and death over him, and who receives from him the most unquestioning and devoted obedience. The king, or supreme chief, dwells in his kraal, surrounded by chieftains and subordinates, who are summoned into residence for a time, and receive presents of oxen for their service. When a Kafir approaches the king's place, he begins, at the distance of half-a-mile, to shout aloud in honor of the royal name, assuring the sovereign that he is the

“Great king.” That he is a “black man,” “a leopard,” “a tiger,” and “an elephant.” Also “a calf of that cow which gores all other beasts with its sharp horns.” When admitted into the precincts of the royal residence, the visitor advances with his body bent, and repeats the royal salute, “*bayeti!*”

As a general rule, the affections of the Kafir are gentle, steady, and enduring. Grown men may be commonly seen in their kraals, fondling and nursing their children. Passion is far from being highly developed in his nature, excepting when it is called forth by some excitement or phrenzy, such as that of war. Under such circumstances, he becomes a fierce and uncontrollable mad man. He possesses a very tolerable opinion of himself; and is generally observing, sagacious, and shrewd, and very slow to attach faith to what seems to him unusual or strange. He is inclined to despise luxury, and to hold that things which are simply useful are beneath the attention and regard of dignified men. The Kafir of high station is almost always reserved and self-possessed, but studiously polite towards those with whom he has grounds for intercourse.

Certain of the better qualities of human nature are so generally and so strongly marked in the Kafir character, as to deserve to be especially named as national peculiarities.

First and foremost, among the qualities that come out prominently in the Kafir, when intercourse is held with him, is his lightness of heart and cheerfulness. However the case may be in the matter of work, he is always ready to dance and sing, or to laugh and play. Let him have but the smallest occasion, and he will laugh without ceasing. This frame of mind is in a large measure due to the entire absence of what civilized men call “Care.” His wants are very few; and those wants are almost entirely provided for by nature. The mealies, the pumpkins, and the corn, spring from the ground in abundance; the cattle multiply and fatten upon the wild pasture; the children bring themselves up, and find their own place. An old and experienced missionary in Natal remarks that he has never been able to preach to his Kafirs from the text, “Do not take

thought for to-morrow." The Kafir never does take thought for the morrow. Futurity has for him no practically recognized existence, and one consequence is that he is not galled by the spur which above all other things makes the civilized man anxious, fretful, and ill-tempered. It is generally remarked that when Kafirs live long in the employment and under the influences of white men, they gradually lose their cheerfulness and lightness of heart, and become sulky and morose.

The Kafir is by nature as social as the ant, which makes its hillock-nests upon his plains. The men assemble day by day, and pass their time in incessant conversation. To sit together, and snuff and talk, and then to dance and sing together, is the prime enjoyment in Kafir existence. It must also be added that the talk is not uncommonly earnest and concerning grave state affairs. When an ox is killed at a kraal, invitations are sent round throughout the neighbourhood to bring guests to the feast; and the gathering is at last by no means restricted to invited guests. Countless numbers besides drop in as from the clouds, and as a matter of course, receive their share. It has been remarked, that if an ox is killed anywhere in South Africa, Kafirs and vultures are sure immediately to appear. The Kafir is quite unable to eat his meal alone. Whatever he has, he freely shares with all who chance to be at hand, excepting the amasi or sour milk, which is only partaken of by members of the owner's kraal, in consequence of being deemed essential for the support of the children and women. Even when in the service of white men, this national trait continues to be vital. The meal-time is almost sure to bring its levy of hungry mouths, and all get something from the iron pot, even if no addition is made to the contents. This peculiarity operates somewhat injuriously in one particular. It disinclines the Kafir to make any out-of-the-way effort in providing for his own wants. No man cares to have what his neighbours have not in the same degree, because his own store would necessarily then be immediately absorbed by the demands of his visitors. A Kafir was once asked, "As you are so fond of tobacco, why do you not plant it in your garden?" The answer was, "I would plant it if my neighbours would do the same thing. But they would not.

They are too lazy. It is, therefore, of no use for me to plant it, because other people would then come at once and finish it for me, if I did so."

If two Kafirs who are acquaintances, cross each other upon the road, they begin to gossip at the top of their voices, as soon as they are in sight of each other, and they continue the shouting conversation until the words can no longer be distinguished through the increasing distance.

The hospitality which is universally practised among Kafirs, is a natural and necessary result of their social disposition. No traveller in wild Kafirland ever used to think of taking food with him on a journey, or of offering to pay for what he received.

The Zulu and Natal Kafirs are now, however, learning, through their intercourse with white men, that such is not the custom of civilization. The traders in Zululand are gradually accustoming their wild hosts to take payment for their entertainment. A Kafir will now sometimes lodge and board a visitor, and will come to him a few days after and say, "I gave to you when you came to my hut, because you are a great chief (*Inkosi*), and now I am come to you, and what will you give me?" A short time since, eight strong young Kafirs, on a journey, came to one of the missionary stations near Durban, and stated that they were hungry and wanted to be fed, but had no money wherewith to make payment, and that, therefore, they would work first for a couple of hours for the chief, to earn their entertainment.

Another result of the strong social instinct of the Kafir, is a readiness to sympathize with those of his people who are in distress. Wherever there is sickness, the neighbours and friends make constant visits of comfort and condolence; and when bereavement takes place, an innumerable staff of assistant mourners immediately appears.

The Kafir is essentially polite. This is possibly also a consequence of the strength of his social instinct. Salutations are constantly given when visits are made. The host receives his guest with, "We see or respect you" ("*Sakubona*"). The guest on taking leave says, "Farewell," and the host replies, "Go, keep well." In the statement of a disputed case before a chief,

the plaintiff or complainant is allowed to speak as long as he pleases, and then the defendant has the same grace granted to him. No one ever thinks of interrupting either of the parties. The same also is the case in familiar conversation. At feasts, all who are to share, group themselves according to their proper positions—as old men, young men, boys, matrons, young women, and girls, and wait patiently until the head man, who is presiding, apportions the proper share, and then render thanks. No one begins to eat until all are served. The Kafir always acknowledges the smallest favour or gift with the interjectional—Ehe! Ehe! which is equivalent to “*thank you.*”

White men, whose principal intercourse with Kafirs has been in the relation of masters and servants, very generally hold that the race is devoid of all sense of gratitude. The notion, however, mainly depends upon the fact that the Kafir has too commonly been expected to be grateful for some act which he himself has never recognized as a benefit. The simple truth seems to be that the Kafirs are fully as sensible of kindness, consideration, and acts of real benefit, as white men. Instances are continually occurring which prove this position in the most striking way. There is an old German, residing at New Germany, whose means are very limited, but who, nevertheless, has been dubbed “a chief” among the Kafirs, in consequence of his habitually expressing only gentleness and good-will towards them. A Kafir, who had been out of this German’s employ for some time, made his appearance at his house the other day, pulled from a basket two small packets, and laid them on the table, and added, “There, old Baas (*master*), are some sugar and coffee which I bought for you at Pine Town, because I know you like them.” Mr. Posselt tells of an English hunter, who was laid up in a solitary hut in Zululand with a fever, and whose life was preserved for some days through his Kafir attendant creeping by stealth into the neighbouring kraals at night, and milking the cows for him, although quite aware that if he had been caught, his life would have been the sacrifice for the robbery. Mr. Posselt was once passing a kraal in a remote part of the colony, when a Kafir-woman rushed out from a hut, and called after him to stop his horse. On coming

up with him, she said, "Here are sugar-cane and mealies for you—you are the man who gave me bread in your place three years ago." Mr. Posselt had forgotten both the woman and the occasion alluded to. Instances of grateful memory of this kind are of constant occurrence.

A few months ago, a strange Kafir-woman from a distance came to the Bishop's station in very great distress, because she had broken a pick which she had borrowed of a neighbour, and did not know how she could replace it. The Bishop's manager, Mr. Tönnesen, gave her another pick, and she went her way rejoicing. Four months afterwards, the woman made her appearance again, when her features were all but forgotten, and came up to Mr. Tönnesen with a bundle of green mealies. Not recognizing his visitor, he said, "What do you want?" The reply was, "You are my *Inkosi*; you gave me a pick." And the green bundle, the first-fruits of the ripening mealie crop, was laid in acknowledgment at his feet. Instances of grateful memory of this kind are of constant occurrence.

The Kafirs have a very fine and correct sense of justice. They never murmur at the infliction of any punishment or penalty that has been deserved. There is scarcely any jury in the world, which would be more ready to find a verdict of "served him right" in a case of merited penalty, than one impannelled from Kafir men.

There is perhaps no more astonishing trait in the Kafir character, at least so far as the tribes surrounding Natal are concerned, than the scrupulous honesty of almost every individual. The houses of white settlers are left without fastening on window or door, and unwatched from year's end to year's end. Articles of linen and clothes are habitually left on the open ground to dry and bleach. And yet it is an occurrence of the rarest kind that any article, however trifling, is missing. Mr. Posselt states that he has had occasion to send cash to the amount of £100 from German Town up to the Berlin Mission station, at the foot of the Drakenberg. His course of proceeding, under such circumstances, is to explain to the messenger what it is that is entrusted to his charge, and to give him a fair payment for the service of transport. The Directors of the

Natal Bank have sent money to the amount of £2000 sterling down to Durban, from Maritzburg, by Kafir messengers. It must be understood that the Kafir, when on a journey, has nowhere to rest, but in the huts which he passes on his way. He sleeps in these huts with the matters entrusted to his charge lying near him. Notwithstanding these facilities for theft, there is not a single instance on record of money having been lost while in the messenger's hands. The magistrates who collect the Kafir hut tax, have not uncommonly as much as a thousand pounds in their possession for days, in the wildest parts of the land, without any guard around them for their personal protection. Mr. Tönnesen resided four years at the Norwegian Missionary station in Zululand, and during that time never lost the smallest article, although hatchets, nails, and tools of the most seductive kind were constantly scattered about in all directions round the premises. During the struggle between Ketchwago and his brothers, the victorious party visited this station in the first flush of victory; one of Ketchwago's soldiers saw the skin of a kid lying out, which he took a great fancy to. He came, however, to Mr. Tönnesen, to ask permission to take it, before he ventured to lay his hands upon the coveted treasure. Upon the whole there is probably no land in the world in which property is more absolutely safe than it is in Natal. This is, however, far from being the case among the Kafirs of the frontier of the old colony. The Kafir races there are inveterate thieves. Some portion of the honesty of the Zulu Kafirs is probably due to the traditional policy of Chaka and his successors. Robbery has been commonly punished by death in Zululand, since Chaka's accession to power.

Having glanced at the bright side of the picture, there now remain certain peculiarities of a less pleasant kind to be named. Human nature of course is not more perfect among rude people than it is in cultivated communities. It is a curious fact that the wild Kafir himself recognizes the antagonism, and the struggle between good and evil, which are found in his own breast. He has a name for the "angry heart" (*ugovane*), and the "peaceful heart" (*unembeza*); and he remarks in common conversation, when relating what he has felt, "The angry heart

said—so and so; but the peaceful heart said—so and so.” In attempting an analysis of the “ugovane” then, first and foremost must be placed the Kafir’s laziness. This is found to be the greatest stumbling-block at the outset of every attempt to civilize the race. Whatever the Kafir performs, he does in a slovenly fashion, and so to speak, by halves. He is quite unable to comprehend why exertion should be made to get any task accomplished off hand. It is his temperament, and his second nature, to dawdle and dream. There are exceptions, where the Kafir does learn to work with the energy and the assiduity of the European. Such exceptions, however, are but rarely met with. The German missionary, Mr. Posselt, states that during an experience of twenty years he has found only two such instances.

In one particular the Kafir seems to be more lazy than he really is. He is quite unable to carry on any occupation with order and predetermined arrangement. He will go through a task which he has been a long time in the habit of performing. But in any new and improved kind of labour, of however plain and simple a character, he must have the white man’s eye constantly upon him, or he soon falls into inextricable confusion. It is a curious fact that the wild Kafirs very readily learn to work in circles, but can only be taught to trace out squares, triangles, or other regular straight-sided figures, with the utmost difficulty.

When the Kafir comes into the service of the white colonist, he almost always proves to be personally dirty as well as disorderly. His hair soon gets filled with vermin, and his skin profusely soiled, if he be not looked to closely. He is not dirty in his habits in his state of dignified leisure. He then commonly bathes every morning at sun-rise. His hair is filled with wood raspings, and other rude cosmetics, to keep the vermin away; his body is greased after his morning bath; but this is to prevent his skin from cracking in the heat of the sun. His hands are always washed after eating, and also before milking. In the life of leisure these personal cares furnish an important part of the occupation of the day. When the life of leisure is exchanged for the life of servitude and toil, such good observances naturally tend to fall into abeyance.

The Kafir is far from being as honest in words as he is in acts. It is not his nature to be straightforward in speech, and to tell the whole truth. He is prone to have very large reservations in his own mind when he is avowedly giving a full account of some occurrence, and manages to disguise and distort facts with exceeding cleverness and skill. A Kafir will excuse a fault with such ready plausibility, that he will make an intentional act of wrong doing seem but an undesigned accident. He is also a consummate hypocrite. Praise and flattery are commonly upon his tongue, when there is only contempt within his breast, and when he thinks the man whom he is flattering but little better than a fool.

The Kafir is greedy and stingy. He is very fond of cattle, and of money also when he has learned what it is. With the exception of the practice of hospitality, which has been alluded to, he is a miser, and influenced by an uncontrollable impulse to hoard. It is a maxim with him that "It is better to receive than to give." It is almost impossible to ascertain what a Kafir is worth. He always pleads poverty and hunger. However easy in circumstances he may be, he is always unwilling to buy clothes. All his cash must be turned into cows. It is to buy cows that he works and saves. The Kafir's mode of taking care of his money is to tie it up in a piece of rag, with so many knots that it is next door to impossible ever to get the fastenings undone, otherwise than by the adoption of Alexander's plan in a similar case.

Beneath their light-heartedness, sociality, and politeness, the Kafirs have a considerable vein of grosser ore. They quarrel, as well as talk. They easily take offence, and their most usual mode of settling the dispute in such cases, is to club each other fiercely. The ladies of a kraal may sometimes be seen rating each other soundly, with their heads just protruded from the low portals of the several huts; and occasionally, when the verbal sharpness has acquired a certain edge, they rush forth upon each other, and continue the dispute, at the point of the nail. In cases of extremity they get their little affairs finally brought into arrangement by the authoratative application of the marital Club. The anger of the wild Kafir is blind and unreasoning rage,

when it has reached a certain point. As might be expected, in this respect uncivilized barbarians very much resemble the lower and irrational members of creation. When they break through the surface-shell of good humour and politeness, they are devoid of all further restraint, and then fight like dogs, which turn the sharp tooth towards an antagonist's throat, until one or other of the combatants is beaten or cowed. It must, however, be added that the Kafirs are not, as a general rule, vindictive in their resentments. In Kafirland the moral tempest commonly passes by as quickly as the thunderstorm; and when the sunshine again breaks out, it is without any cloudy obscuration from revenge or moroseness.

The Kafir is unmistakeably proud. This is strikingly expressed in his haughty gait, and in his love of ornaments. To the Englishman of gentle breeding, who engages in no menial work, who dresses well, and who is open-handed in his dealings, he learns to look up with real respect. He takes with him the place of a chief. The white men of a lower grade he holds in unmitigated contempt; mimics their bearing and manner behind their backs, and almost always finds for them some very apt derisive nickname.

Kafirs, as a rule, are cruel to dumb animals; they have not much sympathy to spare for creatures that do not speak.

In many of their social relations and habits the Kafirs are addicted to practices, which are sanctioned by their own customs, but which are not consonant with the higher and more enlightened morality of civilization. In this particular they are like all other barbarians, who have strong instinctive passions, and who are devoid of the constraints which religion and education impose upon the rational creature. Judged however by the standard of barbarism, they are not essentially an immoral people. The marriage tie is almost universally respected, and some of the most revolting forms of vice, rife in Christian communities, are not known in Kafirland.

The Kafir race, consisting of individuals thus constituted, is now scattered over the entire face of the colony of Natal. Kafir kraals are found alike in the locations especially reserved for their use, on the unoccupied tracts of the unreserved districts, and on the estates of English and Dutch proprietors.

CHAPTER IV.

THE CLIMATE OF NATAL.

THE Colony of Natal lies just outside the tropical zone of the earth, where exogenous trees show a strong inclination to clothe themselves with evergreen foliage, but where the palms withdraw themselves from the face of the landscape. At mid-summer, in Natal, the noon-day sun comes within twelve times its own breadth of being immediately overhead. The *tropical* (i.e. turning-back) movement of the luminary in the sky is made when it has arrived within this short distance of the zenith. The colony is *extra-tropical* only by this narrow measure. The traveller who advances due north from the colonial territory, at the proper season of the year, loses his own shadow, and sees the twelve-o'clock sun diametrically over his head, before he has journeyed three hundred miles. The noon-day sun at mid-winter is seventy-four times its own breadth above the horizon. It rises every day as high in the heavens, at that season, as it does in England (in the latitude of London) at the middle of the month of March, and the end of the month of September. The winter's sun appears at seven in the morning, and sets at five in the evening. The midsummer's sun rises at five, and sets at seven. The longest day is, therefore, fourteen hours in duration, and the shortest day ten. In the summer, the twilight is of exceedingly brief span; in the winter, daylight fades away somewhat more slowly. As there are only two hours between the lighting-up time in summer and winter, the home distinction of the seasons of long and short evenings, obtains but in a very modified degree; there is good margin for artificial illumination in the evening all the year round, even when midnight oil is not consumed.

The inequalities of temperature dependent upon diversity of season, follow very much the same rule as the analogous inequalities of illumination. Extremes are strikingly softened down by the approximately tropical position of the land. Summer and winter present themselves in due alternation as they do in the higher latitudes, but neither is as clearly and antagonistically marked. The opposite seasons seem very much as if they had been broken up into a number of fragments, the pieces being mingled and shuffled together, and then joined into a continuous connection. In the midst of the fresh winter, days occur when the temperature rises nearly to the standard of summer; and green leaves on the trees and bright blossoms on the ground, lend their aid to strengthen the illusion the senses then experience. In 1858, the thermometer occasionally registered 78 degrees of Fahrenheit's heat-scale during the coldest months, in the neighbourhood of Maritzburg.* In the hot summer, there are also days when the heat falls nearly to the standard of winter. In the year 1858, the mercury of the thermometer was occasionally below 60 degrees in the hottest months, and was down to 42 degrees in March. One reason for this peculiarity is found in the length of the winter day; the period of sunshine is never sufficiently short, and the noon-tide sun is never sufficiently low in the sky to enable the winterly chill to gain its full ascendancy. The condition is an essential incident of almost all tropical latitudes. In the case of Natal, however, the peculiarity is strengthened to a very remarkable degree, in consequence of the winter being a period of protracted dryness and sunshine, while the summer is the season of frequent thunder-storms and cloud, and of heavy rain.

The winter of Natal may be said to begin in the month of April, and to end in the month of September. The thermometer during this season falls on the "midland terrace"

* All the facts stated in illustration of the climate of the midland district of Natal, are deduced from very accurate and careful observations made by the editor himself, with standard instruments, three times daily, during eighteen months, at the residence of the Lord Bishop of Natal. This station is within six miles of Maritzburg, and 2050 feet above the sea. The series of Meteorological observations is now continued in Maritzburg.

in the night, to 45 or even 40 degrees, and the air is then laden with moisture, owing to its inability to sustain, while at this temperature, the vapour with which it had charged itself during the warm hours of the day. The sky is generally filled with haze in the early morning, and the air is so fresh, that extra clothing and brisk exercise are essential to comfort. Between eight and nine, the sun breaks through the mist, and the temperature then rises rapidly to 66 or 70 degrees. The sunshine continues until the evening, with occasionally masses of cumulus-cloud floating across the sky, and the day-luminary sinks behind the distant hills as a clear round disc. The air then becomes cool enough to make a small wood fire a pleasant, but by no means indispensable, feature of the in-door economy. A large majority of the inhabitants of both Maritzburg and Durban know nothing of fires beyond the cook's domain, from the beginning to the end of the year. The routine of sunniness is continued day after day. During the six winter months of the year 1858 there were only twenty-four days of unbroken cloud, and there were eighty-three days of uninterrupted sunshine. The highest reading of the thermometer (*in the neighbourhood of Maritzburg*) was 90 degrees. The mercury fell only twice to 38 degrees; six times to 40 degrees; and thirty-three times to 45 degrees. There were only two days when the thermometer did not rise in the day to the temperature of 60 degrees. The average highest temperature for the three coldest months was 69.3 degrees, and the average coldest temperature of the night for the same months was 47.7 degrees.

The lowest reading of the thermometer on the sea coast (at Durban) during the winter of 1858, was 43 degrees. The mean temperature of the six winter months at Maritzburg was 60.7 degrees. The same on the sea coast was 65.5 degrees. The mean temperature for the winter months at Cape Town, deduced from observations carried on during fourteen years, 57.2 degrees. Thus the mean temperature of the winter of Maritzburg was 3.5 degrees above the standard of Cape Town, and that of Durban was 8.3 degrees above the same standard; the winter of the sea coast in Natal being 4.8 degrees warmer than that of the midland district near the capital.

During the winter months, a fresh south-east wind blows almost constantly during the middle of the day in the inland region. This mid-day wind is obviously a current brought in from the cool sea by the heating and rarifying effect of the sun's rays over the land. There is generally a gentle wind from the west or north-west in the morning and evening, which freshens and veers until it is from the south-east towards noon. During the six winter months of 1858, the wind at Maritzburg was blowing from the south-east, in the afternoon, 141 times.

Rain fell at Maritzburg during the six winter months of 1858 only on thirteen days. The entire rain-fall for the six months amounted to 4.8 inches. The rain-fall on the sea coast in the same time was 13.2 inches.

It is a dogma of meteorological science, that fine weather constantly attends upon the occurrence of cold nights followed by warm days. This notion is certainly well founded, so far as the winter of Natal is concerned. The daily range of temperature during the winter months is remarkably large. This peculiarity is very well expressed to the eye in the accompanying diagram, where the shaded belt represents the breadth or extent of daily range:—

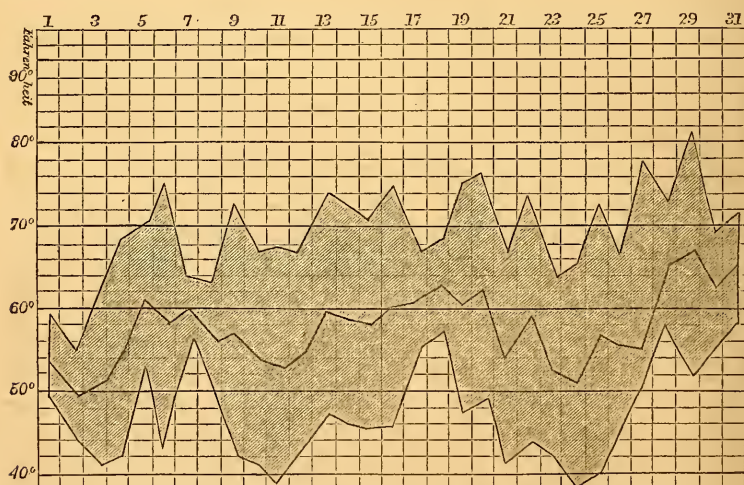


DIAGRAM 2. Showing the Range of the Thermometer, near Maritzburg, for the *Winter* Month of July, 1858.

The days of the month are represented by the perpendicular lines, and the variations of the thermometer by the transverse tracings. The upper line of the belt represents the highest reading of the thermometer for each day, and the lowest line the lowest reading of the same; the breadth of the shaded zone therefore gives the extent of the daily range of heat. The dark central line of the belt marks the mean daily range. It will be observed that the general character of the season is expressed by comparative steadiness of daily mean range, and great breadth of daily extreme range; the central line zig-zags up and down very gently, and the shaded belt itself is even and broad. The significance of this will be at once apparent when the diagram is compared with the one which is given in a following page to represent the state of affairs in the hot month of January. The mere form of these belts and tracings at once distinguishes the season which is present. By following them up continuously the eye can detect at a glance where each season passes into the opposite. The average daily range for the month of July, 1858; that is, the difference between the warmth of the midday and the midnight, obtained upon equalizing the differences among all the days, was 22.6 degrees.

The summer in Natal may be said to begin in the month of October, and to end in the month of March. This season is the period of frequent thunder-storms and heavy rain. The rainy season is not, however, a time of continued down-pouring as in many tropical lands. Each day begins, for the most part, with a clear bright sun. By three in the afternoon heavy cumulo-stratus clouds are seen to be collecting towards the hills; soon after, the sky is overcast throughout, the muttering of distant thunder is heard, and lightning flashes from the darkest clouds. In the course of a couple of hours the rain pours down, and the storm is drifting away towards the sea. In the six summer months of the years 1858-1859, there were eighty days on which rain fell in the neighbourhood of Maritzburg, the entire fall for this period amounting to twenty-one inches and six-hundredths. If this entire rain-fall had been equalized over all the days of the six summer months, it would have given an allowance of rather more than a tenth of an inch for each day. If the same

equalization had been made for the entire rain of all of the previous six winter months, it would have given an allowance of rather more than two-hundredths of an inch; of this, however, three-fourths fell in the month of August. The daily allowance for the other five winter months was only nine-thousandths of an inch. The rain-fall on the coast (at Durban) for the six summer months, 1858-1859, was thirty-two inches and four-hundredths.

During the six summer months of the years 1858-1859, thunder was heard or lightning seen, in the neighbourhood of Maritzburg, on seventy-two days; on forty of these occasions the storm was near. In the month of January, 1859, there was lightning or thunder on twenty-two days. During the same six months lightning was seen, or thunder heard, at Durban on sixty-four days. The thunder-storms at Maritzburg are of exceeding magnificence; but the danger attending upon them has been greatly exaggerated. Violence from the rending force of the electrical discharge, and the deaths of men and quadrupeds, are occasionally reported in different parts of the colony; but considering the frequency of the thunder-storms, and the high degree of tension which the vast, electrically-charged clouds assume, it is very wonderful that these accidents should be of such rare occurrence as they are. No case of accident has occurred amidst the buildings in Maritzburg during the last two summers. It is true that the buildings of the city are now plentifully furnished with lightning rods, but the construction of these appendages is far from being of the most perfect and effective kind. They are for the most part isolated iron rods, standing some distance apart from the structures to be protected, and considerably smaller above than below. These unsatisfactory rods are now being gradually replaced by ropes of copper or galvanized iron wire, led down from the metallic masses of the building to the moist earth, or to the streams of running water which course through the streets. So far as the safety of fixed property is concerned, no settler in Natal, who can command a few shillings, need now entertain a fear of the destructive meteor which has acquired, whether justly or not, a terrific reputation in the colony.

The thunder-storms generally occur with the mercury of the barometer low; that is, when the pressure of the atmosphere is comparatively slight. If the daily fluctuations of the mercury of the barometer be traced upon paper as a continuous curve, and marks be made beneath on the days when thunderstorms take place, it will be found that the storms correspond with the troughs of the atmospheric waves, and that the crests of the waves are devoid of similar accompaniments. In the accompanying diagram, the movement of the atmospheric waves for the month of January, 1858, for Maritzburg, is represented by the transverse tracing, and the round dots beneath show when lightning and thunder occurred:—

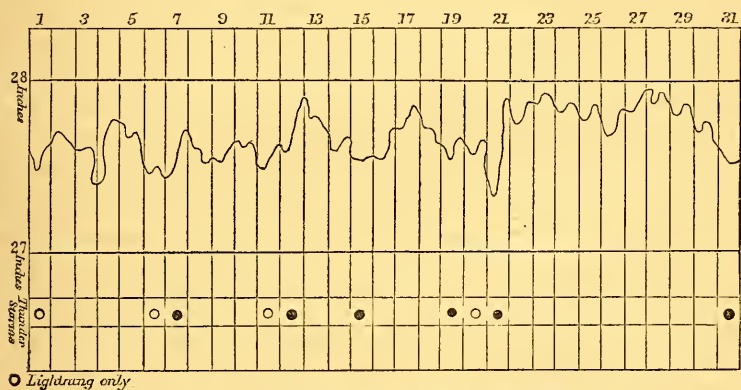


DIAGRAM 3. To illustrate the relation of Barometric Pressure to the occurrence of Thunder-storms.

During the progress of the storm, the mercury of the barometer rises. The wind is generally from the north or west before the storm, and then becomes south-east during its continuance, and begins to blow with considerable violence. The air is not generally very moist at the time of the storm; the hygrometer for the most part indicates between 70 and 80 degrees of moisture, the point of saturation being taken at 100 degrees. The fall of rain during the storm ranges in the midland districts from a tenth of an inch to an inch; the latter extreme being very rarely reached. The lightning is extremely vivid, and the track of the discharge appears against the dark cloud as a ribbon of light, rather than as a mathematical line. This track is also commonly seen to quiver, as if it were a succession or interrupted

stream of discharges, and to endure in the sky while the observer counts two or three. Its forms are of astonishing diversity. Sometimes it is curved, *S* shaped, or hooked. Very often it is a zig-zag line darting down from the centre of a broad paraboloid bow. Occasionally there are quivering rays starting out from a centre like the lines of fracture when glass is starred. Now and then a complete coronal or garland is traced on the dark grey field, and lines of horizontal discharge may be seen ranging to and fro immediately above the flat masses of the table-mountains. The colour, too, of the electric track is as varied as the form. Now the light is of a bright rose colour; now it is the delicate pink hue of the topaz; now of a light amethyst tint; now orange; now pale blue; now pearly pure white; and now of a remarkable dead leaden tinge. It is quite impossible that any adequate conception of the gem-like lustre and beauty of these subtropical lightnings should be given by mere description. They must be seen before a notion of their character can be realised. To those, however, who have contemplated them, it becomes a much easier thing to believe that modern science is right in considering lightning to be fire fed by mineral and metallic substances found by the electric agency diffused in the air. These bright-hued lightnings bear a very obvious resemblance to the coloured lights which are observed when the different metals are burned in intense flame.

The thunder-storms very rarely hover long over one spot. They are generally in continued motion towards the south or east, and their highest intensity passes away in a few minutes. When a storm goes over at five or six in the evening it is, however, no unusual thing to see the distant lightning flashing up from beneath the horizon at ten and eleven o'clock. Occasionally distant lightning is seen flashing in this way, up from the horizon, at six points of the compass at once. The appearance of these remote flashings is often of exceeding brilliancy. Sometimes the end of the great storm-cloud looms from the horizon with a splendid glow or brush of light bursting from behind it at each discharge, and throwing the black masses forward in strong relief. At other times the foldings of the troubled and twisted clouds are rendered conspicuous by coloured lines and sheets of fire, which exceed in complication and variety of device,

the most ingenious display of human pyrotechny. As many as fifty-six distinct lightning-flashes in every minute may sometimes be counted rising in this way from one spot of the horizon, and the exhibition be seen continuing upon the same scale for one or two hours at a time.

During the six summer months of the years 1858-1859 there were only five days on which the thermometer did not rise at Maritzburg to 60 degrees. There were only twenty-nine days on which it did not rise to 70. It was above 70 degrees on 153 days; above 80 on seventy-four days; above 85 on twenty-five days; and above 90 on four days. The highest reading of the season was 93.4 degrees. There were only fifty-four nights during the six summer months when the mercury of the thermometer sunk to 60 degrees; and seventeen when it sunk to 55 degrees. The lowest reading at night for these months was 50.5 degrees. The mean temperature for the six summer months, near Maritzburg, was 69.4 degrees; upon the coast (at Durban) it was 74 degrees. The mean for the summer months at Cape Town, deduced from fourteen years' observation, was 66.5 degrees. The Maritzburg summer in 1858-1859 was nearly 3 degrees warmer than the standard summer of Cape Town; and the Durban summer $7\frac{1}{2}$ degrees warmer than the same. As a rule, a fresh wind from the south-east blows over the midland district of the colony in the middle of the day. During the six summer months of 1858-1859 the wind was blowing at Maritzburg from the south or east, at three in the afternoon, upon 160 days. During the summer season the mid-day sky very commonly puts on the precise aspect of the trade wind. A light misty background is overspread with beautiful patches and heaps of white cumulus-cloud, chasing each other steadily from north-east to south-west. The general appearance at this time is very much as if Natal were included within the range of the trade-wind region, the main atmospheric current being, however, continually broken in upon and interrupted by the limited and local disturbances set up over the sun-scorched slopes of the land, and issuing in the thunder-storms. The prevalent south-east wind of the summer season is probably half a sea-breeze and half a trade-wind. That of the winter season seems rather to be sea-breeze alone, the extreme range of the

southern trade being then carried away considerably to the north by the northerly declination of the sun.

There is one remarkable feature connected with the climate of Natal, which makes itself somewhat disagreeable to the senses, and is therefore not very easily overlooked. Every now and then a "*hot wind*" blows over the land from the north-west. As a rule, these South-African siroccos begin in the early morning and blow until the afternoon, when they yield to the south-east current. They do not often continue more than eight or ten hours at a time; once only during the last eighteen months the hot wind was sustained for fifty hours. The thermometer rises during the prevalence of these winds to between 85 and 95 degrees. The highest reading in a hot wind during the last eighteen months was 96.8 degrees. The wind blows with great violence, and is so drying that the wood of slightly-made furniture in dwelling houses cracks and splits during its continuance with sudden explosions. The hygrometer indicates somewhere between 26 and 42 degrees of dryness; that is to say, the air is only between one-fourth and one-half saturated with moisture. The hot winds rarely blow in the middle of winter. They begin in the month of August, and are then very trying and troublesome. The hot wind was blowing at Maritzburg eighteen times during the year commencing with April, 1858. There can be no doubt that these hot winds come from the scorched plains of the interior of the continent; they are currents of air heated by contact with tropical sun-burnt ground. The puzzling point about them is that they move in opposition to the ordinary laws of atmospheric arrangements. Heated and rarified air is almost always driven in an upward direction. But these heated currents flow downwards from the Drakenberg over the descending terraces and slopes of the colony. They do not, however, actually reach the sea. They are scarcely ever experienced on the immediate coast. Upon seven occasions, when the hot wind was blowing furiously at Maritzburg, during the months of August and September, 1858, with the thermometer ranging between 85 and 90 degrees, there was a gentle east wind at Durban *with the thermometer ranging between 75 and 78 degrees*. It seems very much as if the scorching breeze were the advanced guard of a strong current rushing from the north-west over the higher

central plains, and carried by its mere momentum beyond the ledge of the Drakenberg, and some distance along the lower slopes, until its forward course is checked by the resistance and antagonism of the denser air setting in from the sea over the coast lands.

Observations are yet needed to establish the precise limits of these remarkable and puzzling winds; but in the mean time, this much at least can be said of them. They would be very distressing in the upper regions where they blow, if they were sustained for any prolonged period of time. As it is, they are very easily braved on account of the discomfort being transient. From six to eighteen hours is the general average of their duration. It is a very rare occurrence indeed for them to present themselves on two consecutive days. When the wind veers at the time of their prevalence, and begins to blow from the south-east, the thermometer often falls from fifteen to twenty degrees within a single hour.

The daily range of temperature in Natal during the summer months is comparatively small. This peculiarity is pictorially represented to the eye in the accompanying diagram, where the shaded belt expresses the breadth or extent of the range, as it does in that for the winter months, alluded to at page 50.

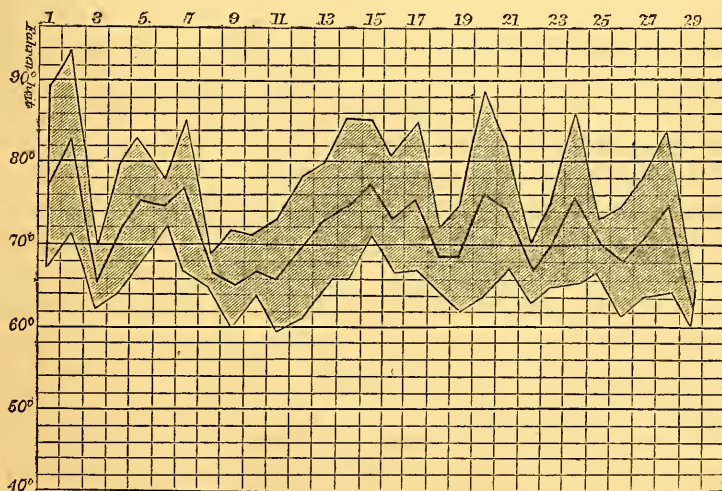


DIAGRAM 4. Showing the Range of the Thermometer for the *Summer* Month of February, 1859.

It will be observed that the general character of the season is marked *by great irregularity and oscillation of daily mean range, and by narrowness of daily extreme range.* The central line zig-zags abruptly and violently up and down, and the shaded belt is narrow, and also very peaked and jagged, like the mean line. If the diagrams (Nos. 2 and 4) illustrating the range of temperature in the months of July and February be compared together, the peculiar differences alluded to will instantaneously strike the eye. The average daily range of temperature for the month of February, 1859, near Maritzburg, was 13.7 degrees; that is, the night was $13\frac{1}{2}$ degrees colder than the day, instead of being $22\frac{1}{2}$ degrees colder, as was the case in July.

Now and then heavy hail-storms occur during the summer, and commit some little devastation upon the growing crops. Sometimes they come whirling up with a kind of tornado-wind, but at other times they fall without this accompaniment. The stones are sometimes so large that travellers are glad to take shelter from the volley beneath their waggons. Horsemen caught in the open veldt unsaddle their horses, and place the saddles, shield fashion, above their own heads. The storms may be heard approaching for a long time, their advance being accompanied by a very distinct drone or roar, which is probably caused by the swift passage of the large stones amidst the resisting particles of the air. Masses of ice as large as pigeons' eggs are commonly seen, and occasionally there are angular lumps too bulky to be put into an ordinary drinking-glass. Hail-stones of three-quarters of a pound weight have been weighed immediately after their fall. These destructive storms extend over very limited areas, it being no uncommon thing to find corners of enclosed ground battered by them where the general extent of the inclosure is uninjured. During the last two summers there have only been two heavy hail-storms in the neighbourhood of Maritzburg. Visitations of this kind are, however, more frequent in the higher lands. It is a curious fact that even in the uplands, some districts are more exposed to hail-storms than the neighbouring localities, and consequently acquire a reputation of danger, which causes them to be avoided by settlers. The hail-storms which are accompanied by wind

are very much more destructive than those which fall through comparatively still air.

Although the principal rain-fall in Natal takes place with the thunder-storms of the summer, it does sometimes happen that a continuous rain sets in at the transition of the seasons, with a wind from off the sea. These rains from the south-east are maintained for two or three days at a time. The rain falls most heavily upon the coast, and with less and less intensity inland. Now and then upon these occasions the rivers become so charged that their channels are unequal to the conveyance of the water, and the neighbouring lands are overflowed. Intervals of several years generally intervene between the successive occurrences of these local deluges. The last one took place as recently as the year 1856. During the 14th, 15th, and 16th of April, twenty-seven inches of rain fell at Durban. The fall was diminished to between ten and eleven inches at Maritzburg; and the Great Bushman's River, one of the higher branches of the Tugela, was not swollen beyond its usual summer amount. For the first two days the wind was blowing steadily from the south-east. On the third day, the storm assumed the character of heavy squalls with intermitting showers. During this rain the Umgeni rose near its mouth *twenty-eight feet* above its usual level, swept away a large sugar plantation standing on its banks, and burst across the sand-flat on which Durban is built, forcing a passage to the inner bay. The water was at this time within twelve feet of the level of the principal street of the town, and from the neighbouring hills the houses looked as if planted in a watery waste. The Tongaat rose thirty feet above its proper level. The Umvoti rose sixteen feet, and spread a bed of sand four feet thick on the neighbouring pastures. The Umsindusi carried away the bridge near Maritzburg, and so stopped all communication between the city and the port for several days. After the subsidence of the flood, the sea-beach was covered with trunks of trees and a huge bed of reeds many feet deep, which had been all swept out to sea by the roused rivers, and then thrown up by the breakers and the wind. Two hundred drowned oxen were counted lying upon the sea-shore between the mouths of the Umgeni and the Umhlanga, a distance of only ten miles.

The *daily* oscillation of the atmospheric pressure is very distinctly marked in Natal. The mercury in the neighbourhood of Maritzburg, as a rule, falls about the tenth part of an inch towards the afternoon, and then again rises in the evening. The mercurial column stands about a fifth of an inch higher in the coldest month than it does in the hottest. The mean height of the mercurial column for the month of July, 1858, at a station near Maritzburg, and 2055 feet above the level of the sea, was 27,700 inches. The mean height for the month of January, 1859, was 27,884 inches. The highest reading for the winter months was 28,304 inches. The highest reading for the summer months 28,143 inches. As a rule, the atmospheric pressure continues much more steady in winter than in summer. This, as well as the greater height of the mercury of the barometer in winter, is very plainly shewn in the accompanying diagram—

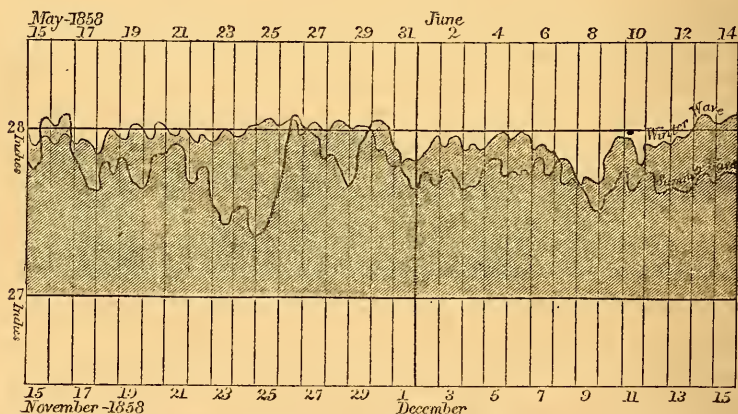


DIAGRAM 5. Comparison of Barometric Wave for Winter Month and Summer Month, at Maritzburg, 1858.

In which the oscillations of the barometric column in the months of May and November, 1858, are traced down as continuous lines. The lighter shade represents the wave of barometric pressure, from the 15th day of the month of May, 1858. The darker shade represents the wave from the 15th day of November, 1858. There is, no doubt, an intimate relation existing between the incessant variations of atmospheric pressure, and the frequency of thunder-storms, during the season of summer.

Notwithstanding its almost tropical position on the earth,

and its frequent vicissitudes of temperature, Natal is remarkably free from the more grave forms of disease. In this respect the several colonies of South Africa are all eminently favoured. Statistical returns have shewn that the rate of mortality is singularly low, even for troops engaged in military service. It is upon record that while 480 soldiers die yearly out of every thousand kept in service at Sierra Leone; 121 in the thousand in Jamaica; 78 in the thousand in the West Indies generally; 48 in the thousand in the Madras Presidency; 28 in the thousand in Bermuda; 27 in the thousand in the Mauritius; 25 in the thousand at St. Helena; 21 in the thousand at Gibraltar; 16 in the thousand in Malta and Canada; and 14 in the thousand in Nova Scotia and New Brunswick; only 13 in the thousand die yearly in the western district of the Cape Colony, and *only nine in the thousand in the eastern district*. In the campaign in Kafirland in 1835 not a single officer or man was invalidated during five months of active service. In Natal newly-arrived settlers often remain for months under canvass, or in slightly and very carelessly constructed buildings, without experiencing the slightest injury. Individuals engaged in transport work pass to and fro between the Transvaal territory and the sea-coast, and are weeks upon the road without any other shelter than the waggon and the open veldt, and yet suffer no inconvenience. Instances are continually encountered of persons who came to Natal as invalids a few years ago, but who now ride on horseback from Durban to Maritzburg in one day with the most perfect ease. Strong men in vigorous health tell how a long time since they suffered from habitual spitting of blood in England. The climate proves, indeed, eminently serviceable to those who manifest a tendency to consumptive disease, provided the benefit of its influence is secured to them before the malady has made decided progress. The important result in these cases is brought about in several ways. The genial temperature enables the most delicate people to live very much more in the free open air than they could do in England. There is also strong temptation to spend a considerable portion of every day on horseback. And in addition to these influences, the circulation is constantly and powerfully diverted from the oppressed

organs of respiration to the skin. The grave forms of malarious and intermittent fever are entirely unknown in the colony. Asiatic cholera has never shewn itself between the Drakenberg and the Indian Ocean. During the past few months small-pox has been prevalent at Cape Town and Graham's Town; but up to the present time the disease has not appeared to the east of the Umzimkulu. Fevers, connected with primary derangement of the digestive organs, and thence assuming the type known technically as gastric and hepatic, occur occasionally during the season of transition which lies between summer and winter, and after prolonged exertion and exposure to the hot sun; but they are generally very tractable, and soon yield to judicious management. Diarrhœa and dysentery are of somewhat common occurrence upon the first decline of the greatest heat, and are excited obviously by the influence of the chill upon the skin, which causes a large quantity of blood to be suddenly and injuriously thrown from the external covering of the body, upon the membranes which line the alimentary canal, and which are in the most immediate relation and sympathy with it. The skin itself is also prone to suffer at the commencement of the winter from an eruption of a very annoying and troublesome kind—(a kind of ecthyma). Vesicles appear on different parts of the body, which are each at the first the exact counterparts of the vesicle of vaccination. They rise, fill, pit in the centre, turn into pustules with a circle of inflammation round them, and then dry into scales. But they do not then readily heal like the vaccine pustules. Matter forms beneath the scab again and again, and if due care be not taken, broad shallow ulcers are produced, which continue to cause considerable discomfort for a long time. The places however soon heal after the maturation of the pustules, if the person suffering from them lives carefully and simply, and keeps the affected parts quiet and covered with folds of wet linen. The eruption is in reality a consequence of the skin having been continuously excited and stimulated by heat for a long time, and of its being then left in a depressed and exhausted condition when the stimulus is withdrawn. The affection is, in short, a superficial inflammation of a low and congestive kind.

Residents upon the sea-coast acquire after a time a sallow complexion, and become languid. These signs point to the prudence of making a trip up into the higher lands, or of arranging for a voyage home to England. Upon the whole a considerable proportion of the illness which is encountered in the colony may be traced to obvious mistakes in personal management. Many young colonists, when they become sensible of the depressed energy which results from sustained exposure to the high temperature, seek to keep themselves up to the mark by the aid of stimulant drink. This is an error of the most grave and mischievous kind. The exhaustion which follows the first excitement is antagonized for the time by the artificial stimulus, but the way is necessarily paved by it for a subsequent double amount of depression. The capital of the strength is wastefully and ruinously drawn upon. Every drop of the spirituous liquor added to the blood has to be got rid of at the cost of exertion on the part of organs that are in an already over-worked state. Very few constitutions, indeed, can bear with impunity a stimulant temperature and stimulant drink combined.

Another mistake which English colonists are very liable to fall into, is the continuance of the same habits of exertion and exposure in the mid-day sun, which they have been in the custom of practising in their old home. The native inhabitants of all really hot climates keep themselves quiet during the middle of the day. The Dutch in South Africa have wisely adopted the same custom. But the energetic and industrious Anglo-Saxon is very backward in entering upon such seemingly lazy proceedings, and resolutely works on, whatever his occupation may be, during the most searching hours of the hot season, and sooner or later pays the penalty for his temerity.

A third frequent cause of illness in the colony is the unsuitable character of the structures which are too commonly erected as dwelling-houses. On account of the great value and cost of skilled labour, and in many particulars also of material, the houses are built inconveniently small, and with an insufficient number of apartments for the comfort of their inhabitants. As, however, the structures are for the most part very slight, and

pervious to the movement of the air, the small rooms are less injurious on the ground of deficient ventilation than they would be if the walls were more compactly and solidly built. These small rooms, with thin walls, on the other hand furnish a ready access for warmth as well as air, and very soon become injuriously oppressive under the rays of the blazing sun. The Dutch have generally built their houses with fairly large and lofty rooms; but they, in common with the majority of the English settlers, have not been sufficiently alive to the necessity of providing an efficient protection from the out-door heat. This is a fault which will be sure to find easy rectification with the advancing prosperity of the colony. The kind of house most suitable for the climate is a sort of bungalow of a single story, with a steep-pitched thatch roof which extends all round eight or ten feet beyond the walls, and is supported upon posts at the edge. The windows of the apartments are thus made to open into cool and shaded verandahs, and the direct rays of the sun never fall upon the walls themselves. When the rooms of the house are sufficiently large and lofty, and are separated from the sloping part of the roof above by boarded ceilings, dwelling-houses built upon this bungalow-plan are very salubrious and comfortable. It is one strong recommendation to this style of architecture that the walls may be entirely made of sun-dried bricks. The broad thatched verandah affords such a perfect protection from the effects of rain, that walls built of these simple and comparatively uncostly materials last as long, and are in every sense as serviceable, as those made of kiln-dried bricks, or of stone.

The evenings and nights of the winter season in Natal, are frequently free from clouds, and starlight. During the six winter months of 1858, there were ninety-seven star-light evenings. It unfortunately happens, however, that the beauty of the nocturnal heavens is much marred at this season by the smoke rising everywhere from the burning grass. The atmosphere is brought, for all star-gazing purposes, tantalizingly near to the London standard. Scarcely an evening can be found for months that is entirely free from this drawback. During the summer season, an evening sky, unencumbered by clouds, is a

very much more rare occurrence. During the six summer months of the years 1858—1859, there were only twenty-six star-light evenings. The large comet of 1858 was first seen near Maritzburg, in its full blaze of glory, on the 13th of October, after the thunder-storms and rain had commenced. Not a single glimpse of the interesting visitor could be again had until the 24th of October. After that the heavens were covered every evening by impenetrable cloud until the beginning of November, when upon two occasions the departing luminary was seen. These four opportunities comprised the only ones upon which the comet could be contemplated by the unaided eye. When, however, the few and far-between visitations of a clear nocturnal sky do occur in the summer season, on the uplands of Natal, the spectacle amply makes amends for its rarity by its transcendent magnificence. The stars seem half as large and half as bright again as they ever do in England, and shine with a steady effulgence. When the eye is directed towards the zenith, the entire surface of the otherwise dark canopy is found to be there thickly studded with silver points, sprinkled broadcast over the vast field. The countless sixth-class (*"magnitude"*) stars, of which even faint glimpses can but rarely be caught in England, are perfectly within the range of distinct visibility, and are seen crowding up the spaces which lie between the more obtrusive twinklers. It is quite true, that as a whole, the heavens of the southern hemisphere do not present so many large and bright stars as the skies of the north. The brilliant luminaries of the Great Bear, Cassiopeia, Perseus Auriga, and the immediate attendants of the Pole-star, are missed for themselves as well as for their associations. But these southern vistas of far space have on the other hand compensatory glories and graces of their own. When the Scorpion looks down from a high altitude in the black field, with its venomous red eye, and its star-barbed tail scrolled over its back, a stream of clear light sets from the scattered twinklers of Sagittarius across the reptile's tail, and then flows on past the truly magnificent pair of Centaurus (one of them an object of unsurpassed interest to human eyes, on account of its being man's next-door neighbour among the stellar host), and past

the kite-like Rhomb of the so-called Cross, until it only fades on the far horizon among the gleaming points of Argo. On the side this phosphorescent track is ornamented, as if by a glittering gem-set pendant, by the broadcast cluster of third-class stars, which is known as the Wolf. On the other side it is ornamented by the delicate garland-like tracing of the Southern Crown. There is nothing in the northern hemisphere which can compare with this southern sweep of the galaxy; in places it blazes up into all but distinguishable star-clusters, and in others it is rent by fissures and gaps of absolute blackness,—glimpses of the actual void made almost appalling to the eye, by immediate close contrast with the surrounding weird light. The southern pole is itself a desert tract of blank mystery, where the close observer seeks in vain for some distinguishable pivot on which he may fix the nightly whirl of stars; and near at hand in this region of obscurity, as if to enhance the weirdness of the mystery, there loom two ghostly spectra of far-away star kingdoms,—remote islands of the illimitable firmament which are called the “clouds of Magellan,” because their faint forms were first marked by the keen sight of that early navigator of the southern seas.

Sir John Herschel has remarked that the evenings are almost always cloudless and clear at the Cape of Good Hope, about the time of the full moon. A similar remark might be made for Natal. In the latitudes of this colony the moon occasionally comes within four times its own breadth of the zenith as it crosses the meridian. At such times the moonshine is often of such intense brilliancy that strong black shadows are cast by it, and that the smallest objects can be distinctly seen by its aid.

The following tables express the details of the main characteristics of climate for Maritzburg, Cape Town, and the sea-coast of Natal, for the year 1858.

1. *Abstract of Mean and Extreme Barometric Pressures, Mean and Extreme Temperatures, and Rain-fall; for the neighbourhood of Maritzburg, in the several Months of the Year 1858.*

Months.	Barometer corrected and reduced.			Thermometer.					Mean Moisture of Air. Saturation = 100.	Rain-fall in Inches.
	Monthly Mean.	Highest of Month.	Lowest of Month.	Monthly Mean.	Highest of Month.	Lowest of Month.	Mean Highest Reading	Mean Lowest Reading		
JANUARY -	27.682	27.981	27.356	68.3	93	52	76.1	60.3	78.6	2.59
FEBRUARY -	27.745	27.993	27.461	73.3	96.8	53	82.3	63.3	70.7	2.12
MARCH -	27.769	28.139	27.429	69.4	91	42	78.6	60.8	71.7	3.62
APRIL -	27.734	28.183	27.212	65.6	85	43.5	75.5	56.1	69.9	1.36
MAY -	27.941	28.226	27.515	59.5	79	38	71.5	47.5	60.6	0.00
JUNE -	27.899	28.158	27.640	58.6	78.2	39.3	78.2	39.3	66.4	0.08
JULY -	27.884	28.152	27.606	58.1	81	38	69.6	47	65.6	0.14
AUGUST -	27.823	28.153	27.571	61.3	89.8	43	70.6	52	55.8	3.15
SEPTEMBER -	27.676	28.304	27.487	64.4	90	42	74.8	54.1	70.5	0.07
OCTOBER -	27.812	28.082	27.546	63.8	89	50.5	70.8	56.8	84.3	2.99
NOVEMBER -	27.781	28.109	27.339	68.2	88.5	52.4	75.9	60.6	79.6	3.81
DECEMBER -	27.415	28.058	27.440	69.3	92	54.6	76.6	62.0	76.0	5.21
MEAN FOR YEAR	27.763	28.294	27.466	64.9	87.7	45.7	75.0	54.9	70.8	25.14 SUM.

NOTE. The observations, from which the abstract is derived, were taken at the residence of the. Bishop, with standard Instruments, by Dr. Mann. The station is six miles east of the city of Maritzburg, 50 feet higher than the city, and 2055 above the sea.

In Latitude 29° 30' S.
Longitude 30° 8' E.

The Mean temperature is taken from the Mean of the self-registering Maximum and Minimum thermometers.

NOTE. The observations, from which the abstract is derived, were taken at the residence of the Bishop, with standard Instruments, by Dr. Mann. The station is six miles east of the city of Maritzburg, 50 feet higher than the city, and 2055 above the sea.

In Latitude $29^{\circ} 30' S.$

Longitude $30^{\circ} 8' E.$

The Mean temperature is taken from the Mean of the self-registering Maximum and Minimum thermometers.

2. *Abstract of Mean and Extreme Barometric Pressures, Mean and Extreme Temperatures, and Rain-fall; for the neighbourhood of Cape Town, Cape of Good Hope, in the several Months of the Year 1858.*

Months.	Barometer corrected and reduced.			Thermometer.					Mean Moisture of Air. ——— Saturation = 100.	Rain-fall in Inches.
	Monthly Mean.	Highest of Month.	Lowest of Month.	Monthly Mean.	Highest of Month.	Lowest of Month.	Mean Highest Reading	Mean Lowest Reading		
JANUARY -	29.949	30.258	29.686	72.9	92.0	53.8	75.2	59.4	67.3	1.222
FEBRUARY -	29.936	30.193	29.733	76.3	98.7	54.0	76.4	60.1	68.1	0.984
MARCH -	30.012	30.308	29.773	68.0	84.4	51.6	74.4	58.9	66.4	0.826
APRIL -	29.987	30.268	29.642	68.3	89.8	46.8	74.1	56.7	66.9	2.645
MAY -	30.124	30.542	29.782	56.5	72.8	40.3	64.4	52.1	80.6	0.754
JUNE -	30.123	30.419	29.770	57.6	74.2	41.0	62.2	50.7	81.7	2.978
JULY -	30.172	30.416	29.683	49.3	62.6	36.0	57.1	45.6	83.9	4.726
AUGUST -	30.047	30.379	29.671	56.4	68.8	44.0	60.4	50.3	79.5	5.608
SEPTEMBER -	30.126	30.479	29.703	63.8	83.0	44.7	64.3	51.6	75.1	2.695
OCTOBER -	30.070	30.294	29.898	65.0	81.5	48.5	67.7	54.5	69.9	1.101
NOVEMBER -	29.989	30.294	29.518	69.8	88.0	51.6	73.8	57.5	65.0	1.102
DECEMBER -	29.939	30.193	29.602	71.3	90.4	52.2	75.8	59.3	63.7	0.040
MEAN FOR YEAR	30.039	30.337	29.705	64.7	82.2	47.0	68.8	54.7	72.3	24.23 SUM.

NOTE. This abstract is from observations taken at the Royal Observatory, Cape Town, by standard Instruments.

The Observatory is within three miles of Cape Town, near the sea level.

In Latitude 33° 56' S.

Longitude 18° 28' E.

The Mean Temperature is taken from the Mean of the Self-registering Maximum & Minimum Thermometers.

The Mean taken from the five observations of each day is 62.42 degrees.

3. *Abstract of Mean and Extreme Temperatures and Rain-fall; for the Port of Durban, in the several Months of the Year 1858.*

Months.	Thermometer.			Mean Moisture of Air. — Saturation = 100.	Sum. of Rain-fall in Inches.
	Monthly Mean.	Highest of Month.	Lowest of Month.		
JANUARY -	74.2	93	57	75.6	3.210
FEBRUARY -	77	91	61	71.6	3.104
MARCH -	73.6	91	51	78	12.138
APRIL -	70.9	89	47	82	4.494
MAY -	64	83	44	76	0.404
JUNE -	63.6	86	48	76.6	0.959
JULY -	62.4	81	46	77	2.988
AUGUST -	65.2	81	49	72	3.928
SEPTEMBER -	67.1	87	47	71	0.236
OCTOBER -	65.9	84	56	85.3	9.915
NOVEMBER -	72	93	55	86.3	5.029
DECEMBER -	74.0	92	55	84	7.721
MEAN FOR YEAR	69.1	87.6	51.2	77.9	54.12

NOTE. The observations from which the abstract is derived, were taken at the Gardens of the Horticultural Society of Durban, by standard Thermometers; the station being at the base of the Berea hills, about ninety feet above the sea level, and three miles from the shore.

In Latitude $29^{\circ} 53' S.$

Longitude $31^{\circ} 2' E.$

CHAPTER V.

THE COAST LANDS AND TROPICAL PRODUCE.

SUGAR—COFFEE—ARROW-ROOT—COTTON—INDIGO—THE APPROXIMATELY
TROPICAL TERRACE, PINE TOWN—THE PORT OF DURBAN.

THE coast district of Natal, possessing an average breadth of from twelve to fifteen miles, and comprising within itself an area of about a million of acres of land, is supereminently the region of tropical produce. This luxuriant strip is defended towards the sea by a rampart of low hills, which are in many places densely covered with trees, technically distinguished as "the bush." The trees for the most part are small evergreens, compressed into a thick jungle, which extends inland from half a mile to five miles. In some situations, however, the trees are of large size, and the tangle of underwood disappears. In these situations huge leafless and cactus-like euphorbias frequently fill up the extremities of natural vistas, with their stiff and spiny clubs, projected forty or fifty feet towards the sky. The foliage of the bush is for the most part glossy, and is interspersed with clusters of brightly-coloured blossoms. The pink and purple convolvulus, and various other climbing plants, are festooned from the branches, and monkey-ropes,—the slim stems of climbing mimosas,—hang from tree to tree. Within this belt of bush the land assumes a more open character. Green undulations are seen spreading out in all directions, and these are diversified here and there with steep and precipitous valleys, and occasionally with abrupt and almost bare walls of rock. The valleys are always filled with trees, and in many places the spiny mimosas are scattered over the verdant slopes as ornamentally as if they had been planted by design. In many instances it is hardly possible to realize the idea that

these park-like glades have been produced without artificial interference. The slopes themselves are carpeted with grass, and ornamented by flowers, which are among the valued exotics of the hot-houses at home. The wild banana, the native palm, the tufted aloe, the spiny and stiff cactus, and the grotesque euphorbia, furnish every now and then a hint that the beautiful scene inclines to clothe itself with a tropical garb.

The soil within the belt of bush-covered land is principally a light, but rich red compound, containing within itself the mouldering remains of vegetable growth of past centuries. This mouldering compound is technically known as the "chocolate" soil, and is, of course, of a very fertile character; but it is not available to any large extent for the purposes of agriculture, without the expenditure of a considerable amount of labour to clear it of its burthen of wood. The more open ground is in some places a black clayey loam, and in others a light and loose sand. In many situations it is of great productiveness in its virgin state, and in all it is capable of being brought to a condition of high fertility by art. The virgin soil not unfrequently is capable of yielding two crops of either cereal plants, or of esculent roots, in the year.

Nine years ago, the coast-lands of Natal, notwithstanding their natural capabilities, were little more than a beautiful and luxuriant waste, yielding scarcely any produce that could be turned to commercial account. Soon after this period, however, a remarkable change came over the wilderness. About the year 1851, Mr. Morewood sent up from Compensation, on the Umhlali, a spot between thirty and forty miles to the north of Durban, a sample of fine sugar, grown and manufactured upon his own farm. This sugar was crushed out of the cane by means of a rough wooden roller hewed from an old mast, and was boiled and manufactured in one of the ordinary iron cooking pots, such as are employed in preparing the Kafirs' food. Several settlers on the Isipingo, twelve miles to the south of Durban, shortly afterwards followed Mr. Morewood's lead. Year by year the plantations of these pioneers increased, and fresh adventurers were added to their ranks. The high capabilities of the district for the growth of this valuable article were quickly established,

and it is now generally believed that a very considerable proportion of the entire coast region is calculated for the profitable growth of sugar ; and that the yearly yield if the whole of the available land were brought into cultivation, would be no less than one million of tons of the manufactured article.

A rapid sketch of the existing condition of the belt of coast lands, within seven short years of Mr. Morewood's important experiment, will form the best possible introduction to a notice of the capabilities of Natal as a seat for agricultural and commercial enterprize. The river Umgeni empties itself into the sea about three miles to the northward of the Port of Durban, the great inlet to the colony. Upon the south bank of this river, and at the base of a tall range of hills ("*The Berea*") which impinge upon the stream a little way above its mouth, stands the Springfield estate, one of the oldest establishments for the cultivation of sugar within the colony. The cane grows on a fine flat skirting the river, and is of great luxuriance. It was this estate which suffered so severely in the great flood of 1856, when the swollen Umgeni made a clean breach through the mill, reaching a height of nine feet within the building, and carried the heavy metal pans of the boiling battery sheer out of their masonry. A large number of acres of plantation was destroyed ; but the manufacture of sugar in Natal is in so elastic a state, that already the Springfield works have recovered from the injury, and are again in a flourishing condition. The Umgeni at the time of this flood had its channel so thoroughly cleared, that a very long time will in all probability elapse before a similar catastrophe can occur again on the same spot. A measure of precaution has, however, been taken by carrying the plantations up the ascending slopes of the valley.

Where the Umgeni is crossed by the coast-road from Durban, it is about two hundred yards wide, and there is there a sandy ford or drift. In the rainy season at this drift the water is so deep, and the current so strong, and the channels also shift about so capriciously in the loose sand, that the passage of the river is not always either easy or safe. In the winter season, the passage is for the most part readily made on horseback and by waggons. The attention of the colony is at the present time

fixed upon the practicability of increasing the facility of transport in this direction, either by the formation of a traversable weir, or by the construction of a bridge. Immediately after the Umgeni is crossed, the county of Victoria is entered; and here upon the north bank of the river, some three miles from its mouth, the sugar-cane is being planted, and steam crushing-mills of considerable power are in process of erection, by Messrs. Kennedy, Millar, and others. The land at this spot is so rich that it readily fetches even now the price of thirty shillings, and two pounds, per acre in the market. The road, after leaving the Umgeni, passes for about eight miles through the dense bush. The country then opens out, and becomes comparatively destitute of wood, and homesteads may be seen in various directions, surrounded by large fields of cultivated ground, planted principally with the sugar-cane and the arrow-root. The white calico trays used in the manufacture of the latter become here conspicuous objects in the landscape. Many of the planters in this situation at present only grow the cane upon a small scale, and send their produce to be crushed and manufactured at the mills of larger proprietors. Some of the most enterprising and determined of these small holders, by dint of great personal exertion, work off their own crops with very inefficient and inferior mechanical contrivances. Upon the banks of the Umhlanga in this neighbourhood, there is a cane-plantation of eighty acres belonging to Mr. Gee, with a steam mill in full operation, which crushed last year thirty acres of cane.

About nineteen miles from Durban, upon this northern road, there is a very thriving little settlement known as the village of Verulam. It was founded in the year 1850, by a party of Wesleyan immigrants, and is placed on the south side of the river Umhloti. It now boasts of a population of a hundred and fifty white inhabitants, and has for the service of its community a well-appointed school attended by about thirty scholars, a library comprising some hundred volumes, and a literary association, to which lectures are frequently delivered. In many particulars this thriving little settlement sets a very praiseworthy example to its neighbours.

Beyond the Umhloti, a shallow sandy stream, stands the

township of Mount Moreland. This was one of the spots fixed upon by the agent of Mr. Byrne, the originator of the ill-digested and unsuccessful emigration scheme of 1848. The township was laid out by this gentleman's instructions, and many of the immigrants received their allotments here. The district around was long known as "*The Cotton Lands.*" Many hundreds of individuals became landed proprietors in the small way on this spot, but of those hundreds very few indeed settled down upon their property. The "Township of Mount Moreland" now consists of *one solitary house and a neat little church.* There are, however, several farmsteads scattered around, and arrow-root is cultivated somewhat extensively.

Beyond Mount Moreland the road leads to the Tongaat river. Here is situated one of the most extensive sugar estates in the colony. The surrounding hills are covered with cane in various stages of growth, and the mill (at present worked only by oxen pending the arrival of expected machinery), and the dwelling of the manager, Mr. J. R. Saunders, stand near the bank of the stream. There are 250 acres under cane, and of these, 100 acres were ready for crushing in the last season. The river Tongaat runs through the midst of the estate, which is entirely environed by low bush-covered hills. Ten or a dozen miles beyond the Tongaat, lies the birth-place of sugar enterprize, the spot where Mr. Morewood produced the first sample of Natalian sugar, with his block of wood and his iron pot. This locality is now becoming very populous, and the growth of sugar is already widely extended. The Messrs. Reynolds have in this neighbourhood 250 acres of cane, and a distillery for rum in full operation. The Messrs. Mc'Lean and Mr. Gifford have here extensive plots of cane. Near at hand are also the "Chaka sugar works," so called because they are established in the place where Chaka had of old a military kraal. There is here a very powerful steam-mill, which has just commenced operations. The proprietors of the estate, in order to secure to themselves elbow-room, have purchased neighbouring farms, until they have acquired control over thirty-three thousand acres of land. They have now 50 acres of cane ready for crushing, and expect to have 500 acres under cultivation in the course of another year. In

this favourite and original home of the cane, the country already presents quite a civilized and thriving aspect to the eye. No sugar has yet been manufactured beyond the Umhlali, near to which the Chaka works stand; but cane is already planting, and arrow-root is produced further on towards the Tugela. Both the climate and soil continue to be here of the most congenial kind for the growth of sugar. Indeed it is generally understood that there is a wide plain over the Tugela, and between its channel and St. Lucia Bay, which promises even greater things in the production of sugar than Natal itself can boast.

It will be obvious at a glance that, in a region where such a valuable manufacture as that of sugar is developing itself in so energetic a way, facility of transport is a consideration of the very highest importance. The Umhlali sugar-fields are about forty miles from the Port of Durban. The road which runs from the Umhlali to the port is level and tolerably good, but it is inconveniently crossed by rivers which are apt to become swollen and impassable for heavy traffic at certain seasons. As the wealth of the district increases, bridges no doubt will be formed over these streams; but this cannot be done until a considerable amount of capital can be spared for their construction. In the mean time, a sanguine expectation is entertained that it will be found possible to ship the manufactured sugar upon the coast by means of surf-boats. The sea-shore is for the most part rock-bound, and a very heavy swell is apt to roll in before the south-east wind from the Indian Ocean. There is, however, a little indentation to the south of the mouth of the Umhlali, commonly known as "Morewood's Bay," which seems to be available for the purposes of shipment, and there is also hope that the mouth of the Umvoti may be sufficiently cleared, to become serviceable for the same purpose, without any very extravagant expenditure. An experienced civil engineer is at present in the colony and turning his attention to this subject, and he has already expressed his belief that properly-constructed steam surf-boats may be made to accomplish this work with absolute safety.

There is also yet another hope of a somewhat similar character gleaming upon the horizon. A very sanguine anticipation has been formed that Bray's or Boydell's traction engine, at present bending its iron thews to agricultural work successfully in England, will be found capable of conveying heavy loads along this road. It is possible that the engine may be so contrived as to be made available for the performance of three several essential branches of heavy work. It will first plough the ground ready for the reception of the cane ; it will then drive the rollers and crush the ripe crop ; and afterwards it will harness itself to trucks or waggons of sufficient capacity, and carry off the manufactured produce to the port. An engine equal to this multi-fold labour will cost about two thousand pounds. A spirited proprietor of sugar plantations, in the direction which is now under notice, has already sent an order to England for a traction engine, in order that its capabilities for the work required in Natal may be put to the test. If the issue of the experiment be a satisfactory one, a very brief interval will elapse before the engine will find its way to the higher grounds, and enter into the service of the upland agriculturists. It is hardly possible to calculate beforehand the benefit that would be rendered to the colony if the capital and the port could be brought into connection by one of these ingenious steam drudges. The traction engine is able to climb a slope with a gradient of one in three. It works well upon a gradient of one in ten. The steepest gradient which has to be faced upon the present Durban and Maritzburg road is one in twelve. The traction engine is capable of dragging a heavy load along a fair gradient at the rate of from three miles and a-half to four miles an hour. The journey for heavy traffic between Durban and Maritzburg would therefore be about fifteen hours, instead of three days, as at the present time, with ox waggons.

The population of the Sea-coast County of Victoria now amounts to 622 Europeans and 29,982 Kafirs, of whom 874 have been in the service of the white colonists during the year. Three thousand two hundred and twelve acres of land are under cultivation in this division, of which 1413

acres are devoted to sugar-cane.* The produce of the county for the past year was 165 tons of sugar; 91 tons of arrow-root; 159 tons of oat hay; 130 muids of oats; 2945 muids of Indian corn (exclusive of that grown by the Kafirs for their own use); 857 muids of sweet and common potatoe. There are at the present time in the county 6057 head of cattle; 183 sheep; 124 goats; and 125 horses.

The southern division of the coast-lands comprises the county of Durban, and the now rapidly filling-up district lying beyond the Umkomanzi. The road from Durban in this direction sweeps round the head of the inner bay, passing through the suburban village of Congella, with its pleasant market gardens, and then leads on to the estate of Claremont, situated about six miles from the Port. This estate is of historical interest, as being the parent of the colonial coffee produce. There are now some thirty thousand coffee plants within its precincts in various stages of growth. There are also some sugar-canes planted in the neighbourhood; and at the farm known as "Sea-view," which offers a very beautiful view of the Bay of Natal, there is a fine grove of orange trees bearing abundant fruit. These trees were among the first of their species planted within the boundaries of the colony, being about contemporaneous with those planted at Weenen by Mr. Boshof. A few miles farther inland there is another coffee plantation, belonging to Mr. Middleton, which is already in produce; Mr. Middleton also grows arrow-root, and has successfully manufactured starch from the sweet potato, and expressed oil from the ground-nut. In close neighbourhood is also the farm "Stella," upon which similar work to Mr. Middleton's is carried on. This place furnishes a striking and interesting illustration of what may be done in Natal by industry

* All the statements made respecting the produce of the different parts of the colony must be understood to be *approximately* correct. They are taken from the Government Returns, which are however only collected with difficulty. The number of Kafirs stated to be in service is limited to those who are in service within the district under notice; many of the Kafirs within each district, however, go out into service in other divisions of the colony. The Indian corn returned as grown on the land is altogether irrespective of the very large quantities produced by the Kafirs themselves for their own use, and for sale.

and care. The proprietor, Mr. Knox, came as a trader to the colony, a few years ago, with limited means. At first he opened a store in Durban for the sale of Kafir truck ; that is, beads, blankets, and trifles, which find a market among the uncivilized tribes. By degrees he saved money, and formed an excellent and remunerative business connection. Two years ago he purchased the fine estate known as " Stella," for a considerable sum of money, and he is now a large producer of arrow-root.

The high lands in connection with the Bluff, which forms the southern entrance of the inner bay, furnish a considerable quantity of arrow-root. The southern coast-road passes along under the shelter of these grounds, until it emerges upon a flat plain of many miles in extent, and of a high degree of fertility, the soil consisting chiefly of a deep, rich black loam. The Umlazi river winds through this plain, and at rare intervals overflows its banks, doing some considerable amount of damage to growing crops at the time, but leaving an ample compensation for the mischief, in the deposits which the water spreads over the ground. The Isipingo also drains this plain. Near this rivulet are the sugar-works of Mr. Jeffels, who claims the honor of having been the first *large cultivator* of the sugar-cane within the colony. Mr. Milner imported and set up the first steam-mill for crushing, his object being to bring numerous small growers around him to supply the mill. But Mr. Jeffels worked the first large steam-mill for himself, growing the cane which the machinery required to feed it, and manufacturing the sugar at his own works. There are now two other steam-mills belonging to Messrs. R. King and Atkinson, in the neighbourhood. Mr. Babbs and the Messrs. Platt are also prosperous sugar planters. Mr. Babbs has a large quantity of cane in the ground, and is producing sugar of excellent quality. There were eight mills at work on the Isipingo, in 1858 ; and the traveller may here ride for six miles through sugar-cane, in one continuous stretch.

The white population of the county of Durban, amounts to 2248. The Kafir population to 11,288, of whom 1827 have been in service to white colonists during the year. Five thousand three hundred and sixty-five acres in this county are under cultivation, of which 1490 acres belong to sugar-cane, 121 acres to coffee, and

361 acres to arrow-root. The produce of the county for the last year was 362 tons of sugar ; 127 tons of arrow-root ; 7220 pounds of coffee ; 2296 muids of Indian corn, (exclusive of that used by Kafirs) ; 144 muids of oats ; 100 muids of beans ; 1120 muids of potatoes ; 21,060 muids of sweet potatoes ; and 658 tons of oat hay. There are in the county 3546 head of cattle, 10 sheep, and 200 horses. About 79,000 acres are serviceable as pasture, and some 800 acres are in preparation for the reception of the sugar-cane. There are at work in the county twelve sugar-mills, 4 corn-mills, 16 arrow-root manufactories, and three coffee manufactories.

Beyond the Isipingo, the coast-road passes through the Umlazi location, one of the large tracts set apart, for the use of the Kafir inhabitants. This reserved tract contains 130,000 acres : land in many places well adapted to sugar cultivation. The country is very picturesque, being composed of green hills and wooded valleys, interspersed with kraals of beehive-like huts and mealie grounds. At the further bound of this location, the Umkomanzi river is encountered. This is a clear and fast stream, with a mouth capable, it is believed, of being made available for the shipment of produce, and with a channel navigable by small craft for four miles from the sea.

The land to the south of the Umkomanzi, is at the present time so far extra-territorial, that it belongs to no county. It is under the control of a magistrate, who resides beyond the Umzinto : and for electoral purposes is for the present appended to the county of Durban. The land here still continues to be perfectly adapted to sugar. Planting operations were commenced three years since by Mr. Mackenzie at Craigie Burn, on the lower Umkomanzi, and 40 tons of sugar have been already manufactured by a steam-mill from 20 acres of cane, and next season there will be 64 acres to crush. Several intending planters have settled down near to the Umzinto, 65 miles from Durban ; and near the same place, a company with a capital of £20,000, have commenced planting. Mr. Arbuthnot has also 30 acres of cane in the same neighbourhood. In this new district, upon the banks of the Umkomanzi and the Umzinto, there are now 93 white residents and 89,000 acres of land

occupied, 1400 of the acres being actually under cultivation, and of these 250 are in cane. In the same district there were two years ago twelve white residents, occupying 9000 acres of land, of which eight acres alone were broken up. In 1856 there were two farms surveyed; there are now 170 farms surveyed. The reason for this very rapid increase of occupancy is that a large number of government land-grants were made in this neighbourhood, while the regulation allowing of quit-rent-grants was in force. The Umzinto Company procured a grant of 9000 acres of land. The grants first made were to the extent of 6000 acres each. In consequence of the introduction of sugar-planting, the more recent grants were only of 600 acres each.

Last year, the mail steamer, *Madagascar*, took away at one time, 250 bags of sugar produced in this locality. There are 16,853 Kafirs in the division of the lower Umkomanzi, and 270 Kafirs in service during the last year.

It has been stated that a very large proportion of the area of the coast-lands is generally conceived to be adapted for the growth of sugar. A fourth part of the same area is of a light and sandy texture, and equally suited for the production of arrow-root and cotton. The remaining fourth is rugged and bush-covered, and therefore not fitted for agriculture in any form. Nearly 300,000 acres of the coast region are still in the hands of government, and open to the enterprize of capitalists. The remaining part is either appropriated by private individuals, or reserved for the native locations.

In regard to the requirements of a sugar-planter, it may be at once stated that the command of some little capital is essential to success. An immigrant with several grown and able-bodied sons, could do with a much smaller capital than a man who had to begin single-handed. In a thinly-peopled land, children are virtually capital. Some of the most successful of the sugar-planters are men who, having had the assistance of their children, have actually made their way without any money to start with. There is one in comfortable circumstances at the present time, who landed with a family seven years ago, and who had only a few shillings in his pocket when he entered upon his campaign in the new country. It is not, of course, every man who is

capable of accomplishing such a task as this. The victory in this instance was due to the unusual share of energy and persevering industry which were brought to bear upon the work.

The small capitalist, however, who has a few hundred pounds in his pocket or in the bank when he lands, will find his way much more open and smooth. In the year 1858, an estimate was made by a gentleman well acquainted with facts, that it was possible for an energetic and experienced agriculturist to turn even as small a sum as £500 to excellent account in planting the cane. Since that time the price of land and of working cattle has, however, been considerably enhanced, and it must be at once stated in round terms, that the settler who has not a larger sum than this at his command, may turn it to much better account. It may also be further added, that no settler should on any account begin to plant sugar, until he has reaped some considerable amount both of experience and information on the spot. With the additional caution the estimate then made is presented, because it shows the way in which a man of unusual determination and resource, and who is resolved upon becoming a planter, may best apply his means. Upon such a capital, or even with two or three hundred pounds more, the intending planter must not, of course, think anything about erecting machinery at his start. Many mills now working in the colony have cost more than double the sum alluded to. The course which should be adopted is simply this. A suitable field must first be selected. It will be the best plan to rent the selected land for a time, and he will experience no difficulty in doing this, as several proprietors of extensive sugar estates now let out portions of their land on lease at moderate rates, and in some instances even undertake to erect machinery for the occupants.

If the adventurer determine, however, that he must have a plantation of his own, the best way of proceeding is to endeavour to join with some other individuals in the purchase of ground, which may be subsequently divided in shares of about 200 acres among the individual purchasers. This ground should be carefully chosen, in the neighbourhood of some estate which has already a crushing-mill working upon it. The next need will

be a colonial cart and eight oxen. This may be made available for the transport of goods and chattels from the port to the new home. A site for a dwelling-house may then be fixed upon. In making this choice, an eye should be kept upon the facilities for procuring the two prime necessities of colonial life, water and wood. The wood, it should be borne in mind, will be needed both for fuel and for building. If a great distance has to be traversed to procure a supply of either of these essentials, it will be a heavy draw-back, on the ground of economy. By the aid of ten Kafirs the settler may, if he be at all a handy man (and if he be not this, he had better think twice before he leaves his old home with small means) in the course of a few weeks erect a temporary residence of wattle and daub. Structures of this kind are made by fixing strong poles in the ground at short intervals. These are held together by a running beam, on which the roof is to be placed, and the whole are firmly tied together by cross poles. The timber frame is then filled in with a basket-work of saplings or wattles, which is plastered with successive coats of clay, until these are made tolerably smooth on the face. The last coat is finished off with a plastering-trowel and white-washed. The roof is simply thatched with dried grass. This kind of building is both inexpensive and expeditiously made, and possesses the further very important advantage, that the great part of the work can be done by the natives. Structures of this character, if reared upon good poles, will generally last for five or six years, and make very comfortable dwellings until more enduring ones can be formed. A small garden for the supply of vegetables, and cows for the supply of milk, for family use, will constitute very valuable aids to the domestic economy.

As soon as a sufficiently commodious dwelling has been provided, the settler should turn his whole available force to clearing and breaking up land for planting. With the aid of eight oxen and Kafir labourers he should manage to plant as much as twenty acres of cane in the first year. Mr. Arbuthnot's experience proves that this may easily be done. In the month of June, 1858, ten Kafirs cleared, stumped, and picked over upon his farm, without any assistance from the plough, five

acres, which at the commencement of the operation was a perfect wilderness of vegetation, consisting of shrubs and old stumps of trees. On each of the two following months, the same amount of work was accomplished. During the second year he should plant thirty acres more, taking his shoots from the year-old cane. Up to this time his expenditure should stand something in the following form:—

FIRST YEAR'S EXPENDITURE.

Purchase price of 200 acres of land, at 10s. per acre	£100	
Eight oxen, at £5	40	
Cart, with appurtenances	20	
Plough, harrow, hoes, &c.	25	
Doors, windows, &c. for house	10	
Six Zulu cows, at £3	18	
Ten Kafir labourers, at 7s. per month	42	
Mealies for labourers' food	30	
Household expenses	50	
Cane tops for planting 20 acres (4000 to the acre), at 3s. per 1000	12	
Incidental expenses	15	
Total	£362	£362

SECOND YEAR'S EXPENDITURE.

Ten Kafir labourers	£42	
Food for labourers	30	
Household expenses	50	
Incidental expenses	20	
Total	£142	£142
ENTIRE EXPENDITURE OF TWO YEARS		£504

The caution must here be repeated, that some allowance must now be made for increase in the value of land and cattle since the estimate was made. Land now sells in the sugar districts at £2 per acre; and in many places trained oxen cannot be bought for less than £8 a head. Kafirs, also, cannot always be hired so low as seven shillings per month. The twenty acres of cane first planted would be ready for manufacture at the end of the second year, and taking the yield at the fair estimate of two tons per acre, the produce at present prices would be worth

at least £40 per acre to the grower, and would leave for the manufacturer a return of not less than a like sum for his share. In default of machinery upon the grower's own estate, the cane would be taken for manufacture to the nearest mill, and the actual value of the sugar would thus be divided between the planter and the manufacturer. Thus, at the end of two years, under thrifty and prudent management, the original investment of £500 would have brought a return of £800. It is exceedingly probable that with the extension of the manufacture, the price of sugar will fall, but it will be obvious that a very considerable margin can be safely allowed for this possibility. It must be borne in mind that the price of sugar will fall, not in the immediate ratio of the increased production of Natal, but accordingly as the entire wide world is more abundantly supplied with the important luxury. Natal alone may very well yield her million tons a-year without any very decided impression having been made upon the prices in the market. To establish the fact that the above estimate was a fair one for the time at which it was made (that is, in the year 1858), it may be stated that Mr. Mackenzie, of the Craigie Burn Estate, on the Lower Umkomanzi, has been actually producing two-and-a-half tons per acre of sugar, and receiving £42 a ton for the article, the manufacture being from canes not two years old. This sugar was pronounced by competent judges to be fully equal in the particulars of colour, grain, and saccharine strength, to the best qualities sent from the Mauritius. An estimate was made at the end of the last year that Mr. Mackenzie had expended nearly £5000 upon his mills and estate, but that he was already netting a profit of £60 per acre upon the land that had been brought into yielding. Mr. Atkinson, a planter upon the Isipingo, who came into the colony four years ago, was last year getting as much as three tons of sugar per acre from some part of his plantation.

The assumption is made, in the preceding estimate, that the settler comes into Natal, and begins operations at the commencement of the dry season; that is to say, that he manages to take possession of his land in May or June. If he comes later, and loses the opportunity for building and clearing

afforded by the dry season, he must consider that he has the loss of a year to meet. The land should be ready for planting, at the latest, in the months of September, October, and November.

The general opinion of individuals who have now had a few years' experience in sugar-planting in Natal, is that the best sugar lands will yield five or six crops before they need to be replanted, and that the lighter and poorer lands will yield only three crops from one planting. Three crops from each planting, it may be remarked, is the average produce in many other parts of the world where sugar is grown. The cane is planted in rows six feet apart, with an interval of three feet between the canes. The ground needs to be ploughed between the rows, and hoed between the canes, until the plants have acquired a certain amount of strength.

When the small capitalist has his first growth of cane ready for crushing, his most advantageous course of proceeding will unquestionably be to send his cane to some larger proprietor to be manufactured, provided there be a mill within two miles of his plantation. It will be open to him, under such circumstances, either to dispose of the canes at once to the manufacturer, or to arrange to give him a certain fixed per centage upon the produce. If, however, there be no mill within this convenient distance, the carting of the cane would be too costly a process. The only alternative is then to mortgage the sugar and land, to procure machinery for erection on the spot. Such arrangements have frequently been made, with twenty or thirty acres of cane to fall back upon.

There is one point connected with sugar-planting which it is important to note. Oxen are required in considerable numbers to carry on the transport of the cane from the plantation to the mill, and to plough the ground. Two hundred acres of plantation in actual produce, would need scarcely less than 200 oxen. These four-footed labourers must be fed. From one to two thousand acres would barely suffice to furnish them with pasture. As the available land becomes more densely occupied by the cane, this will be a matter that will be ever pressing itself more imperatively upon the planter's attention. It is to be hoped that before the difficulty has become a very

urgent one, the traction-engine will have provided an efficient solution, and will have given the planter a warrant to place all valuable coast land under the cane. At any rate some plan for providing artificial food for the working cattle, may certainly be contrived.

The present state of affairs at the Chaka sugar plantations, near the Umhlali, may be very well alluded to as affording the appropriate contrast to the picture of operations upon a small scale. The first canes were planted here three years ago, under the superintendence of Mr. Balcomb, the manager of the estate. There are now 250 acres green with the cane, and there is also a large quantity of land ploughed and ready for planting, and a field of considerable size which was under cane during the flood of 1856, and which had its produce entirely destroyed. During the present year, there will be not less than 500 acres under cane. A large proportion of the plantation lies upon the hill-tops, and the canes there present a very satisfactory appearance, notwithstanding the universal amount of drought which has prevailed during the last two years. The work of ploughing is proceeding very rapidly, and is entirely performed by Kafir ploughmen. As many as five ploughs may be seen at work at a time in one field, each driven by a Kafir. The work is performed with remarkable celerity and regularity, and at a cost of ten shillings per month each man, without food. The current rate of wages, for common labourers upon this estate in 1858, was five shillings per month and food. Mr. Balcomb has never found any difficulty in procuring an abundance of labour. This result seems to have been due in the first place, to the neighbourhood being somewhat thickly peopled by Kafirs, many of them dwelling as tenants upon the estate, and in the second place, to the fact that the manager is peculiarly happy in his "*knack*" of dealing with his men. His bearing towards them is characterized by that precise combination of firmness and moderation which accords with their own idea of the chieftain's rule. In the midst of this thriving and highly promising plantation, there stands one of the most powerful steam-mills yet erected within the colony.

The sugar-cane is, of course, not indigenous to Natal. It was

first introduced into the colony in the year 1847. There is, however, a plant native to Natal which elaborates a saccharine juice. This is a species of *Holcus*, and is known commonly under the native name of *Imphée*. The true cane thrives best in a rich, dark, fallow soil. It was at first conceived that it could only flourish on low sheltered flats. But it is now perfectly determined that it can be advantageously grown upon hill-sides, as well as in valleys. The rattoons seem to lose nothing in ultimate productiveness, by having their homes fixed upon the hills lying within the coast district. A growing confidence, indeed, is gradually manifesting itself within the colony, that many sheltered localities in the higher lands will be found to be well adapted for this valuable cultivation. The Dutch have, indeed, succeeded in growing both sugar and coffee in the Transvaal States. No process of manuring has yet received attention. The virgin land capable of supporting an abundant elaboration of the sweet juice is so plentiful, that for some time it will answer better to bring new ground under cane, than to make any attempt to sustain the fertility of the portions first occupied. This, however, is of course merely a transition state of things. Before long there will be need for a careful reconsideration of the present mode of proceeding, and a new call will be made for science to follow the march of the planting pioneers. When the call is made, this arch-friend of commerce and civilization will be found true to its proved spirit, and will answer to the invitation.

There are three kinds of cane in favour in Natal. One, the Bourbon variety, is bright and sparkling when cut, and seems to be best adapted for the production of the more delicate crystalline sugars. The purple-leaved and green-leaved varieties are more rich and luscious, and possess somewhat the flavour of honey. These varieties are better suited for the manufacture of the coarser and stronger sugars. It has been suggested that the Chinese cane would be very likely to do well in the higher grounds of the colony, where there is too much cold in winter time for the more delicate varieties to succeed.

The processes employed in the production and manufacture of sugar are of a very simple kind. Cane-tops are first planted

lengthways in the ground. The canes require eighteen months to ripen, after they have begun to spring. They are then cut down near the ground, carted to the mill, and crushed between iron rollers connected with moving machinery. The canes are thrust between these revolving cylinders by hand, ends foremost. The expressed juice is carried off from beneath the rollers by metallic gutters, and conveyed to the battery or series of boiling pans. It is then boiled and passed on from pan to pan as it increases in thickness, and finally is received into the curing house, where the thick juice is placed in a hollow metal cylinder formed with perforated sides and contained in an investing case. This piece of apparatus is called the Turbine, or centrifugal machine. The inner cylinder is capable of being whirled round with great rapidity by steam-power, and as it is whirled, the treacle of the juice is thrown off centrifugally through the perforations of the inner cylinder, and runs away from the outer case by a spout, the manufactured sugar being left in the interior of the Turbine in a dry and more or less crystallized condition. Each batch of sugar is made in this way in the course of five or six minutes. In small factories, where the centrifugal machine is not at work, the process of separation and drying is a work of great trouble and anxiety. The drying has to be principally effected by allowing the sugar to stand a long time to drain.

In a pamphlet published by Mr. Coqui, the aggregate cost of growing and manufacturing sugar, is stated upon the authority of Mr. Babbs, an experienced planter, to be under five shillings per hundred-weight, exclusive of outlay for working stock and machinery. The capital deemed requisite by the same authority, for the growth and manufacture of 400 acres of cane, without the value of land, is £16,225. The annual returns for this capital are estimated at £13,550, and the annual expenditure in carrying on the operations, is fixed at £4338. Mr. Babbs' calculations take £15 per ton as the price of the sugar manufactured. Hitherto planters have readily obtained £35 and £40 per ton.

Natal possesses certain unquestionable advantages as a sugar-growing country. Its climate is peculiarly healthy for one which is warm enough to ripen the cane. The Kafir race, which

is available to the planter for the supply of labour, entertains a strong fondness for the sweet juice of the cane, and for the refuse treacle, and hence is more willing to engage in the work of manufacturing sugar, than in any other kind of operation which is carried on. The Kafir will barter his mealies for treacle, when he refuses to sell them for anything else. In addition to these circumstances may be named the low price of Kafir labour and the cheapness of food. Natal, indeed, has already taken an unmistakeable stand among the sugar-producing countries of the world. At the present time, the colony has cane growing upon 2500 acres of its lands, which in the year 1860, will furnish at the lowest estimate 3500 tons of sugar.

Another very valuable product, which experiment is now endeavouring to show may be advantageously grown in the coast-district of Natal, is coffee. The coffee-plant requires to be sheltered from the sea-breeze, and thrives best upon the slopes of hills which have an inland exposure, and which are crested above by the bush. A warm, rich soil, appears to be most suitable for its support. Trees have been successfully reared at Mr. Thompson's farm at Claremont, at Mr. Middleton's at Snaresbrook, and at Stella by Mr. Knox. Mr. Thompson's trees have already produced at the rate of four and five pounds of berries a plant. In the last season, Mr. Middleton sent one ton of coffee to Durban, as the first-fruits of his enterprize. The berries were full and well formed, of the true lilac bean kind; and their aroma was finely developed, and in due preponderance over the bitter extractive to stamp the produce as exceedingly good. These three localities of coffee-planting are all near to Durban. There are also some bushes on the Lower Umkomanzi, belonging to Mr. Johnstone, which were laden with berries when only two-and-a-half years old.

As it is the bush-land which is best adapted to the growth of coffee, some little preliminary outlay is essential to clear the ground for planting. The cultivation of this berry demands a certain amount of patience also on the part of the planter, as the trees are generally three years before they come into bearing. But on the other hand, no expensive machinery is required for the manufacture, and therefore, a moderate amount of capital is sufficient for the work. A simple and inexpensive pulper is all

the mechanical aid that is called for. The plants are reared in the first instance from seed, which is caused to germinate in a sort of nursery. The young seedlings are then subsequently planted out in rows which are nine feet asunder, intervals of six feet being left between the trees. The plants begin to bear fruit eighteen months after they are planted out, and increase their yield until they are eight years old. They are productive until they are twenty or thirty years old. The plant is an ever-green shrub, nearly allied to the tribe which is represented in England by the honeysuckle, the elder, and the lauristinus. It has glossy oval leaves, distributed in pairs, and small white wheel-shaped flowers. The flowers appear generally on the summits of the young shoots, and at times make the glossy green shrubs look as if they had been sprinkled with snow. The berries present themselves in various stages of maturity at one and the same time, some being green when others are bright or dark red. When the berry is fit for picking, it has a dark red skin, which incloses within, a bean surrounded by a soft tender pulp. The berry is plucked by hand and pulped, and the bean is then dried, sorted into sizes, and packed in casks or bags for the market.

The primary cost of clearing an acre of bush-ground for planting coffee is about £22. Of this outlay £5 14s. is tolerably sure to be returned at the end of the third year. Year by year after this the returns go on increasing. After the primary outlay of planting, scarcely any further expense has to be incurred. Where individuals can afford to make this first investment, and then to wait for their returns, the cultivation of coffee promises to be both an agreeable and profitable occupation.

The price of land in the immediate neighbourhood of Durban, suitable for the cultivation of coffee, ranges from £2 to £5 per acre. About 680 plants are generally allowed for each acre, and each of these shrubs will yield annually, when arrived at maturity, about two pounds and a-half of berries. One hundred and sixty acres are already employed in the production of coffee within the colony, and it is anticipated that there will soon be a yearly produce from these lands of about eighteen tons of the berries.

Arrow-root has now become literally a staple production of Natal. The plant does not require a first-class soil. It grows

very readily, and yields heavy crops on coast-lands, which are entirely valueless for the growth of sugar. Upon these grounds it is deservedly a great favourite with the colonists. Five years ago the fact was first ascertained that its production might be profitably entered upon. There are now 628 acres of land employed in its growth, which yield yearly from half a ton to twelve hundred-weight of fecula (*starch*) for each acre. The market value of the arrow-root now manufactured in Natal every year is about £9000.

The cultivation of arrow-root requires but a very moderate capital at starting, and is attended by quick and large returns. Cuttings from the roots, something after the fashion of the cuttings of potatoes, are put into the ground in rows, in the months of September and October. The roots are ripe at the end of the wet season, and the manufacture of the starch is carried on during the dry months of winter.

The arrow-root plant (*Maranta arundinacea*) consists of a shoot of lily-like leaves rising from a horizontal root-stock, or more properly speaking, under-ground stem, which gives off fibres while growing, that in turn develope into tubers. The plant is closely allied to the Indian Ibot (*Canna Indica*) of the garden. When the root-stock is matured, the tubers and off-sets are densely filled with starch, and are accordingly taken from the ground for manufacture. The tubers are grated by being pressed against a revolving rough cylinder of tin, somewhat of the nature of a nutmeg-grater, and the raspings are then subjected to successive washings; the fibrous refuse rises to the surface and is skimmed away; the pure starch compacts itself into a kind of white paste, which is dried on calico trays and broken into lumps. The great object of the manufacture is to render this paste as pure and spotless as possible, and the apparatus required to effect this is of a very simple and inexpensive kind. In one very complete factory now at work, the necessary machinery and appliances, for operations upon a large scale, with the labour expended in cultivation, cost £200, and the proceeds in the second year were nearly £400. Individuals, who do not wish to invest capital in the erection of machinery, may dispose of their produce to neighbouring manufacturers on profitable terms.

A rich light soil is unquestionably the best for arrow-root; forest land is generally very good. The spot selected for the growth should, above all things, be near to a running stream. Strong and heavy soils are objectionable, because the tubers are unable to attain their proper expansion in it, and because it is very difficult to dig them out from such ground during the dry season. On stiff soils the labourers are often compelled to suspend their operations for weeks, until rain falls. The land, which is about to be devoted to the crop, must be broken up in the month of April, or May, or at least before the close of the dry season, to the depth of twelve inches. It should be ploughed, harrowed, and thoroughly cleaned. Upon the occurrence of the first rain in October, planting should commence, and should continue upon all practical opportunities until all the cuttings are in the ground. The operation should be completed at the very latest by the end of November. If the tubers be put into the ground in rows thirty inches apart, and with eight inches between each, there will be convenient room for a horse-hoe to be used between the rows.

In a fair average season, fifteen hundred-weights of fecula are produced from a single acre of plantation. A ton per acre may very possibly be realized. The following statement will show in details the capital required for the several particulars, in cultivating ten acres of land, and the profit which may be expected to be realized; it being, however, borne in mind that the value of land, oxen, and labour is rising rapidly in the colony.

	£.	s.	d.
The purchase-money for 100 acres of land	100	0	0
A span of 12 oxen, at £4 each	48	0	0
A cart	20	0	0
A plough	8	10	0
Harrows and other implements	20	0	0
Dwelling-house and out-buildings	60	0	0
Cost of living for a family for 18 months	150	0	0
Eight Kafir labourers at 12s. per month, including food	86	8	0
Machinery and manufacturing appliances	75	0	0
Contingencies	56	0	0
	£623	8	0

The return which may be fairly anticipated for the outlay, ten acres of the land being in produce, will be

Ten acres of arrow-root, at 15 cwt. per acre,	
= $7\frac{1}{2}$ tons, value £40 per ton	... £300

By the time this crop is realized, there should be twenty acres more ground broken up, and ready for planting, promising to produce with a far lower expenditure, £600 in the following year.

At the present prices of arrow-root, the growth and manufacture of this substance may be fairly said to yield £25 per cent for invested capital, and great saving may be effected beyond this, by adapting horse labour and machinery to much that is now done by hand.

It is well known that the cotton plant grows luxuriantly in Natal. There is, indeed, a brown-coloured cotton which is indigenous to the colony. The first specimens of the true plant reared in the colony, were raised by Dr. Adams, of the American Mission, in his garden at the Umlazi; the seed had been procured from America. About the year 1845, several individuals had engaged in experiments with New Orleans and Nankin seeds. At this time Mr. Tookey, Mr. Hogg, Mr. Wilson, and Mr. Francis, all had small plantations. Mr. Hogg had as much as twenty-five acres under cultivation on the Umgeni. The operations were not steadily persevered with, mainly on account of want of capital, by the individuals who first directed their attention to the matter. The plantation of Mr. Hogg was transferred to Mr. Chiappini, of Cape Town, who, however, found that there would be some difficulty in the way of getting a safe title to the land, and who was therefore deterred from prosecuting the cultivation with energy. This gentleman, nevertheless, stated in 1849, as results which he had obtained even from the neglected plantation, that twenty-nine acres had yielded 8,925 pounds of clean or ginned cotton, an average produce of 307 pounds per acre, netting upon an average when shipped to England, fivepence per pound. The expense of cultivation from August 1, 1847, to July 31, 1848, for native labour, spades and bagging, was £64 14s. 10d., making the cost of production, exclusive of the purchase of

land, ploughing and planting, one penny and thirteen-sixteenths, per pound. At fourpence-halfpenny per pound, the value of the 8,925 pounds was £167 8s. The profit from a *neglected plantation*, in which the produce was almost spontaneous, was therefore between three and four pounds per acre. The cotton plant is perennial in Natal, certainly in the coast district, and goes on yielding year after year without any additional labour being required for renewing the plantation.

Many small planters had sown seed between the months of August and October, 1845, and in May and June of the following year, the prospects of the cotton-planting were so promising, that the government, which was then engaged in establishing the Kafir locations, advertized for tenders to supply cotton-seed for distribution among the natives, and also for contractors to purchase the cotton grown. Some delay was experienced in procuring the cotton-seed, and ultimately the project failed altogether for some reason that does not very plainly appear.

About this time Mr. J. Bergtheil, at present a member of the Legislative Assembly of the colony, in conjunction with certain individuals in Cape Town, commenced operations with a view to the growth of cotton on a larger scale than had previously been attempted, at an estate about eight miles from Durban, known as Brooker's farm. Superintendents were brought from the Cape, and cotton-seed and machinery for cleaning and packing, were ordered from America. An association was also shortly afterwards formed in Cape Town, which was designated the "Natal Cotton Company;" the object of the association being to bring families into Natal, and aid them in becoming cultivators of cotton. This project did not find the success which was anticipated for it. Mr. Bergtheil, therefore, proceeded to Europe, and brought back with him in the year 1848 the party of settlers who are now located on the estate known as "New Germany," near Pine Town. These settlers were under a contract to grow cotton when they were landed, but at the time of their arrival, the general aspect of affairs had changed very materially. Many of the Dutch farmers, who had been engaged in producing the necessaries of life, had abandoned the colony, and the cost of provisions had consequently risen to

double and treble the previous price. The German emigrants on this account found a more profitable investment for their labour than the growth of cotton. They turned their attention to the providing of food, in the place of the raw material of an article of clothing. Operations continued on the original plantation of Brooker's farm, until 1850, but after that period they were put an end to by a combination of adverse circumstances. During the three previous years, however, twenty bales of cotton were shipped from this plantation to England, each bale containing from 250 to 300 pounds. Sea-island cotton grown on the estate, realized in Manchester a price of 1s. 8d. per pound. Cotton grown from Natal seed realized $7\frac{1}{2}d.$ and 8d. a pound, and cotton from green seed 6d. and 7d. a pound. Ground well cultivated and cared for produced 400 pounds of clean cotton per acre.

Several causes have co-operated up to this time to prevent the cultivation of cotton from establishing itself as firmly within the colony, as some other productive operations have done. One very important and influential drawback has been the uncertain and inadequate supply of native labour. In the case of cotton, this drawback tells with considerable force, because the produce requires to be gathered the instant the seed has reached the proper stage of maturity. Any delay in gathering at this time is fatal to the success of the crop. It may also be added that the very great impulse given to the yet more profitable cultivation of the sugar-cane, tended at an early period to divert both attention and energy from the less-remunerative article. The tide, however, seems now to be again about to turn. No one within the colony doubts for an instant that both climate and specific localities are alike suitable for cotton growth. The problem which has to be solved is simply an economical one, turning upon the question of abundance and value of labour. During an interview which the Rev. Calvert Spensley, of Durban, had last year with Professor Maury, at Washington, the Professor expressed his conviction that there were excellent reasons why Natal must become one of the finest cotton-growing countries in the world.

In addition to these indications of confidence, an energetic

movement is now being made by His Excellency the Lieutenant-Governor to induce the natives to plant cotton in suitable localities, seed being furnished to them for the purpose, and arrangements made to purchase the produce. In its present early stage, the experiment promises well. There will be forty bales of good cotton ready for shipment this year, as its first-fruits. It is extremely probable that it will ultimately be found that the midland districts of the colony are more suitable for the growth of cotton than the low-coast lands, because the cold of winter there, while not so severe as to do injury to the vitality of the plant, is nevertheless sufficiently keen to check the excessive luxuriance which causes the ripening of the pods to take place at all seasons of the year, and so interferes with the adoption of any systematic plan for picking at stated and regular periods. One of the most experienced of the American missionaries, who has a practical acquaintance with the cotton-growing States of his own land, holds strongly this opinion. Some practical authorities state that annual varieties of cotton yield the finest and most valuable produce. It has yet to be seen whether annual cotton plants are not converted into perennials by the genial climate of Natal. Upon the whole the question of the successful cultivation of cotton in a commercial sense, is one that yet stands in the position of an interesting experiment.

The best season for planting cotton is September, or as soon as the spring rains set in. The seed should be inserted into the ground in rows eight feet apart, with intervals of six feet between the plants of each row. It is usual to insert four or more seeds in each spot, and then to draw out the weaker plants as soon as the seedlings have attained some size. This should not, however, be done too soon, because the germinating plants are apt at an early period of their growth to be partially cut off by the ravages of insects. The ground should be carefully hoed between the plants, until they have become bushes of considerable size, and are able to destroy other vegetation by their own shade.

The cotton plant (*Gossypium*) is a kind of mallow, bearing beautiful large yellowish-white flowers, purple-eyed in the centre. and having broad fine-lobed leaves. It grows into a very

ornamental shrub four or five feet high. The capsule is divided into three, four, or five cells, of which each contains one seed densely and closely packed round with the hairy investment which matures into cotton. The development of the hairiness of the seed very much depends upon the *prolonged maintenance* of a summer temperature; and it is on this account that climate is an essential element in the successful cultivation of this valuable plant. A certain amount of cold *for a short period* intervening between the seasons of active growth, is not at all disadvantageous to the produce. In Virginia, where the cotton is now a staple production, frost is very commonly experienced in the coldest months.

The indigo plant is a native of Natal, and there can be no doubt will thrive well within the colony, and will yield its peculiar colouring matter, when proper attention and care are devoted to the cultivation. Several species are found both on the coast-lands and in the higher regions. It is a small papilionaceous plant, something like a shrubby vetch. Its rose-coloured flowers are seen in abundance on the pastures round Maritzburg. Extensive preparations for the cultivation of indigo were commenced by Javanese planters, at Pine Town, in 1855. The operations were not prosecuted on account of special difficulties encountered by the individuals, not connected in any way with unfitness of locality. Specimens of indigo have been produced in the colony, which have been pronounced excellent by competent judges. The production of indigo requires, however, a considerable amount of skill and delicacy, and it is necessarily attended by a rather heavy outlay. The cultivation of this plant does not, therefore, exert so strong an attraction for enterprize as most of the other kinds of activity which have been alluded to.

The long warm summer, abundant summer rains, mild winter, and rich mineral soil of Natal, furnish such an unusual combination of auspicious influences, that it is quite certain many other valuable productions of the hotter regions of the earth might be remuneratively extracted from its soil, by individuals possessing the requisite knowledge and experience. It may be stated, in passing, that the tea-plant has been reared experimen-

tally upon the coast. Ginger and turmeric are produced with great ease. Rice has been grown, and has yielded grain, in two or three localities. The sesamum, or oil-seed (the *banglo* of the West Indies), and the earth-nut (*arachis hypogeia*) are cultivated by the natives on the coast as food. One hundred muids (300 bushels) of the earth-nut have been grown on a single acre. A mill has been established at Durban for the sole purpose of expressing the oil from both these kinds of seed, and the proprietors, Messrs. Russell and Coy, offer either to purchase the raw material from the grower, or to manufacture it for him, according to his own wish. The oil is also manufactured by Mr. Relph. The earth-nut is a very curious and remarkable production. It is a kind of bean, and is produced by a plant of the leguminous tribe. The young fruit is placed at the bottom, and inside of a long tube, which looks like a flower-stalk; the flower matures, fertilizes the germ at the bottom of the long tube, and then withers away. The stalk of the impregnated fruit then lengthens, curves towards the earth, and finally buries the half matured pod in the soil, where it remains to perfect itself. A light sandy soil is essential to this strange proceeding. The ripe pod is pale yellow, and wrinkled, constricted in places, and contains in the interior two or three seeds of the size of a hazel nut, which are as sweet as the almond in flavour, and charged with a pure oil equal in excellence to that of the olive. When the plant is artificially sown, as much as 40 muids of the nut may be very readily procured from an acre of ground; for these nuts a price of six or seven shillings a muid is given. Each muid of the nut yields at the lowest estimate two gallons and a half of oil, worth six shillings a gallon in the market. The compressed residue, after the expression of the oil from the crushed nut, constitutes a valuable oil-cake for feeding poultry and cattle, worth £12 per ton. Growers who do not wish to have the trouble of extracting the oil themselves, may now get their nuts manufactured for them at the charge of eight-pence per gallon, upon the produce. There are sixty acres of land employed in the cultivation of the ground-nut, in the neighbourhood of Durban.

As a final illustration of the anticipations which are entertained

of the capabilities of this district, the statement may be made that Messrs. Russell and Coy, profess to be preparing to manufacture the fibre from the plaintain, banana, pine-apple, and some other kinds of fibrous plants, which thrive on the sea-coast; and that tobacco grows most luxuriantly in all the sheltered parts of the colony.

Before turning from the coast-districts of Natal, there is yet one other point that is worthy of remark. It has been stated that about one-fourth of the area of this favoured and luxuriant region is so bushy and broken, that it is altogether unsuited to the operations of enterprizing colonists. It would be a mistake, however, to infer that even these wild spots are devoid of value to the civilized inhabitants. They are thickly peopled by Kafirs, who manage by the aid of the pick or large hoe, to place the soil in such a condition that large quantities of Indian corn, Kafir corn, and pumpkins are produced upon it. The surplus of the grain crops are disposed of at the rate of 1s. 6d. or 2s. the bushel. By purchasing the produce at this rate, the planter is enabled to feed his Kafir labourers upon very reasonable terms, and is saved the necessity of turning his attention to the growth of the same prime necessities upon his own land, which he would otherwise have to do to the detriment of his more remunerative occupations.

The high road from Durban to Maritzburg ascends the range of Berea hills, which skirts to the north the sandy flat stretched between the mouth of the Umgeni river and the broad water of the inner bay. It is cut through the bush for two or three miles, and then descends upon an open undulating plain, scattered over by homesteads and farms, and presenting in many places to the eye the neatness and order of the best-kept park scenery. Arrow-root and oat-forage share this domain with the wild pasture. After passing on for about a dozen miles, the high thoroughfare comes upon a lofty hill, which at one time used to be the terror of waggon-drivers. The terrors of this "*Cowey's hill*" are now, however, gone, for the road has been carried round this obstacle; horsemen now canter, and oxen *trek* along its escarpment up an easy gradient, until the pleasant village of Pine Town, named from the late Lieutenant-

governor, Sir B. Pine, is seen upon the plain immediately below. The view from the summit of Cowey's hill is very magnificent. The Bluff at the entrance of the harbour, the line of white foam marking the position of the bar and the outer bay, are conspicuous objects over the declining spur of the Berea, in one direction. In another, the valley of the Umgeni, the gleaming surface of Sea-cow lake, a veritable haunt of the hippopotamus, and the sugar-plantations of Springfield, are visible. In front, the houses of Pine Town, with their environments of verdant gardens, are scattered upon the landscape. The township of Pine Town was founded seven years ago, and the settlement has been advancing into prosperity ever since. It now bears the reputation of being one of the most pleasant and salubrious localities within the colony. Many of the buildings are constructed of brick, and are both substantial and commodious. There are a small church, a school, a very good road-side house of entertainment, a butcher's and baker's shop, and one or two general stores scattered widely over a broad expanse of ground. The colonial "towns," with the exception of the capital and the Port, are all at present of this shadowy kind. This settlement stands upon the first step or terrace of the ascending land, and is raised a considerable height above the sea. In passing through Pine Town, the eye detects at a glance the fact that this terrace properly associates itself with the sea-coast territory, which it immediately surmounts, and is subtropical in its climate. A fine grove of bananas stands immediately behind the hotel. A tree-fern is encountered here and there. The trees are nearly all evergreens, and the pine-apple grows as the turnip does in England. This is also super-eminently the region of the sweet potatoe.

In the immediate neighbourhood of Pine Town is the settlement of New Germany, where the emigrants, brought out by Mr. Bergtheil in 1848, are located. Most of the residents have now managed to purchase allotments of land, although they are for the most part entirely of the labouring class, and have erected houses and gathered together herds. They have worked out their prosperity in a very unambitious way by growing forage, potatoes, mealies, and other vegetables, for the supply of

Durban. The produce is generally taken into town for sale by the women of the settlement on Saturdays. New Germany is, as it were, the market-garden of the Port. Pine Town will probably some day contain the country residences of such Durban merchants as incline to get a little way from the sea. The white population of Pine Town and New Germany at the present time consists of 254 individuals. There are in the two places clergymen of the Church of England, the Presbyterian, and the Lutheran persuasions. Mr. Posselt, who has been in the colony from its earliest days, has charge of a station belonging to the Berlin missions in New Germany.

The lower, and approximately tropical terrace, which immediately overlooks the coast-lands, is for the most part a very broken and bushy tract. Hilly prominences and ridges, and abrupt ravines and valleys alternate with each other incessantly. An immense chasm, indeed, seems to run the whole length of the colony at this distance from the sea, having a loftier escarpment on the landward than on the seaward side; and having conical eminences, jagged ridges, and table-masses reared from its floor in the wildest confusion. The sloping prominences are grass-covered, but the table-masses are for the most part circumscribed at the top by walls of bare rock. Enormous blocks of stone are scattered in many places over the hill-sides. The Inanda location, set apart as a Kafir reserve, and standing immediately beneath the eastern face of the Great "Table-mountain," is one of the most characteristic specimens of this magnificent wilderness. The entire location indeed is but a basin-like dilatation of the wild extra-littoral valley. From the summit of the Table-mountain the eye roams for miles over a wide prospect extending beneath for miles, and composed everywhere of a succession of grey and violet hills, looking like hillocks in the distance below, with ravines winding between, and serpentine streams glittering here and there. At times the air is so transparent and clear that every inequality of rock in this wonderful basin landscape stands revealed to the eye, for mile after mile, with a distinctness that renders it very difficult to compass the idea of the enormous expanse of territory that is spread beneath the gaze.

The slopes and ravines of this valley-wilderness are thickly peopled by the Kafirs. Both the coast-lands and the uplands derive a considerable portion of their labour from the kraals that have been established in these localities. The Kafir inhabitants of these wild haunts have also performed another service of very great value for their white-skinned neighbours. They have hunted out and nearly exterminated the tigers (*"leopards"*), tiger-cats, wolves (*"hyenas"*), wild pigs, and numerous other equally objectionable quadrupeds that once infested the sheltered and wood-encumbered spots in destructive numbers.

The portions of the extra-littoral terrace, which are principally occupied by white settlers, lie in the upper parts of the counties of Victoria and Durban, and of the Lower Umkomanzi district. At present no extensive attempts have been made to plant sugar within the region. But arrow-root, cotton, indigo, and tobacco have been successfully grown. Indian corn produces heavier crops than on the lower lands. Most of the European vegetables and corn-crops thrive. A species of wheat known as the *"Golden-ball,"* which was introduced into Natal two years ago, does remarkably well; but other kinds of wheat are liable to rust in certain localities. Some of the finest samples of Golden-ball wheat grown in the colony have been sent from New Germany. Potatoes yield heavy crops of excellent quality. French-beans are very productive and highly remunerative, as they command a ready market for export to the Mauritius. The sesamum and the tobacco are grown by the natives. Cattle and horses do better than nearer the sea; and the abundant dairy produce, and rapidly-multiplying stock, add greatly to the comfort and prosperity of the settlers here. Pigs are a great source of emolument in many spots; but some difficulty is experienced in curing the bacon, in consequence of the sustained elevation of the temperature.

PORT NATAL.—DURBAN.

The town of Durban stands upon the edge of a broad flat of sand lying between the mouth of the Umgeni river, and a land-locked piece of smooth water which is known as the *"Inner Bay."* It is this inner bay which forms the harbour of Port Natal.

The natural harbour of the Port of Natal stands entirely alone as a safe refuge for ships, on the long stretch of the South-eastern coast of Africa. Its land-locked basin of smooth water is the result of a very curious and remarkable combination of circumstances. From the Umlazi river, northwards, the immediate coast is composed of a ridge of lofty hills, which terminates near to where Durban stands, by an abrupt promontory jutting into the sea. This promontory is 290 feet high, and serves as a magnificent landmark or beacon, being called by seamen, "The Bluff of Natal." Parallel with this sea-coast ridge, and about four miles inland, another range of hills ("*The Berea*") runs in a similar direction and overshoots the Bluff, so that it strikes the sea at the mouth of the Umgeni, three miles further to the north. Looking from the sea, and towards the south-west, an open valley is seen included between these ridges. But the seaward mouth of this valley is nearly closed by a low sand-bank. Sand has been drifted in this direction by sea-currents, and piled by the breakers until it has risen above the tide-line and formed a kind of plain. Upon the immediate shore the plain is bordered by a bank of blown sand, which has been caught by the rootlets of a gigantic bean, that here performs the office of the marram-grass of home, and so cemented into a kind of rampart. This rampart extends southwards and seawards into a kind of "Point," which nearly reaches "the Bluff," and leaves only a narrow channel of water between. The flat area contained between the sand rampart and the inner range of hills is not all sand. A portion of it still remains covered with water, and the water of this part flows to and fro with the change of the tide between the Bluff and the Sand-point. The water is the Harbour, or "Inner Bay," and the unclosed space between the Sand-point and the Bluff is the sea-channel, by means of which ships pass from the boisterous ocean to the smooth water of the Port. The harbour is a basin of about ten miles in circumference, completely land-locked, with green tree-covered slopes in many parts coming quite down to the water's edge, and with small islands dotted about in its expanse. Two small streams of fresh water empty themselves into the basin towards its inner side, but the great bulk of the water is derived from the sea with the flow of the tide. The larger portion of the basin is very shallow,

a considerable area being converted into dry sand at low tide; but deep channels cut through these shoals, and form the anchoring-ground of the harbour. Upon the northern run of the basin, about two miles from the Sand-point, the town of Durban nestles upon the edge of the plain, behind the protection of the sea-rampart. A custom-house, landing warehouses, and a block-house have been erected near the extremity of the Sand-point, and a small pier there projects out into the ship-channel. The sand-flat between Durban and the sea is thickly covered with stunted bush, and a road runs through this bush between the town and the Point. At the present time all the merchandize which either comes into the colony, or is shipped from it outwards, has to be conveyed along this bush-road; but a railway is now in process of construction from the landing-stage into the town, under the direction of Mr. Albert Robinson. This railway will be connected with a pier, carried so far into deep water as to allow vessels of heavy burthen to be moored at its side. It is expected that the railway will be in full operation by the month of September or October in the present year, 1859. The engineer who has planned this little work calculates that, in consequence of the necessity of all imports and exports to and from both the colony and the Overberg States passing along the line, of the entire absence of all engineering difficulties on the sand-flat, and of the land through which the line passes costing the company of proprietors nothing, this railway will pay the shareholders better than any other existing in the world.

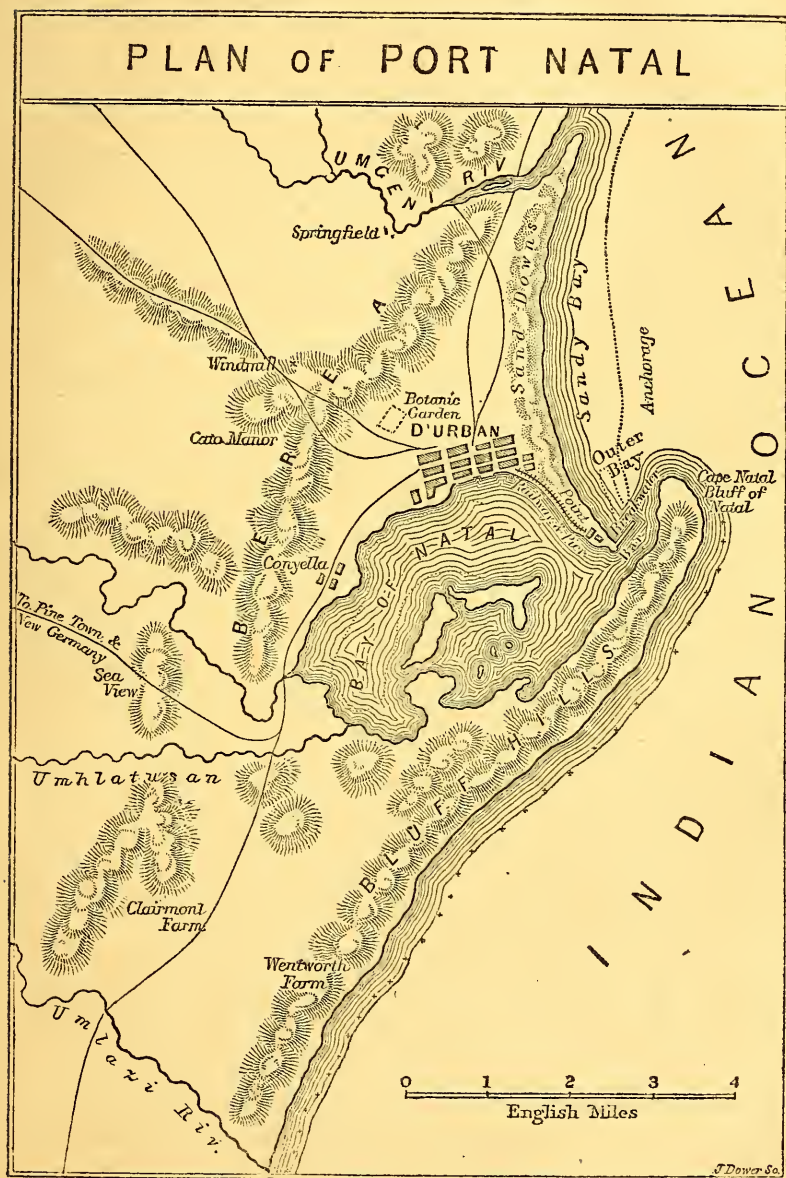
The silting-up powers of Nature have for a long period been doing their best to complete their work of closure at the inlet which connects the harbour of Durban with the sea, and a sandy accumulation is stretched quite across the sea-channel, as a token of their efforts, from the sand-point to the side of the Bluff. But the quantity of water which is contained in the wide area of the inner bay, at the height of the tide, is so great that it continually scours away portions of this deposit as it flows into and out of the basin. The breakers of the sea are continually piling up sand, and the to and fro currents are as continually scooping out, and clearing away the pile. Sometimes the one power, and sometimes the other, gains a slight ascendancy, and the channel is accordingly a little more, or a

little less, wide and deep. The accumulation of the sand beneath the water at the mouth of the inlet, is the troublesome "sand-bar" which constitutes so serious a drawback to the fitness of the Port of Natal for commercial purposes. The depth of the main channel varies between eight and seventeen feet, the average being about nine feet and a half. Vessels of three or four hundred tons burthen, in consequence of this impediment, have often to remain a long time at the exposed outer anchorage, waiting for the high tides, which give an addition of about two feet of water, and for an otherwise favourable combination of circumstances to enable them to transfer themselves from the tossing billows to the safe and quiet retreat within. Even under such circumstances, if there be any heavy swell on when they make the passage of the bar, they are apt to be bumped unpleasantly as they glide over the sandy shallow. The chief cause of the uncertain and capricious state of this bar and its channels, is *the broad span of the outlet*. The scouring water finds its way sometimes more in one direction, and sometimes more in another, and so both shoals and channels shift their positions, and alter their relative elevations and depressions. If by any means the entire force of the scouring water, during the influx and efflux of the tide, could be concentrated upon one narrow and permanent channel, there can be no doubt that a depth of at least eighteen feet of water, at ordinary high tides, would be continuously maintained there, and the harbour would be open at all times to ships of the largest class. If such sure and ready access were provided to this land-locked inlet, Port Natal would at once take rank as one of the finest harbours in the world.

The experience of marine engineering shows that this permanent maintenance of a deep and safe channel, in inlets of water situated like the inner bay of Durban, may be effected by art. The question is simply one of outlay. In the case of the Port of Durban, art has for some time (to the extent of the small means which have been available for the purpose) been directed to the labour. A mole of stone has been gradually extended from the Point in among the loose sand. But in consequence of the very slow remedy for the evil which this course of proceeding seems to promise, the works have been

stopped for a time, and advice has been sought from experienced civil engineers at home. Initiatory arrangements have also been made to procure a loan of £100,000 from English capitalists to enable the labour, in conjunction with that of certain other essential public works, to be conducted upon a scale, and with a rapidity commensurate with the importance of the aim. There can be no doubt that, in the present state of affairs in Natal, the securing a first-class Port would warrant any outlay the young colony can command. It would do more to hasten on the material prosperity which stands so obviously and invitingly near, than any other step which could be taken in the existing phase of affairs. In all human probability the cost would lead to its own repayment in a few years. Both the enterprising colonists and the colonial government are now keenly alive to this fact, and there is no doubt that before long a satisfactory plan of proceeding will be determined upon, and the desirable end worked out. Within the last year, an American ship of two thousand tons came to anchor in the bay, in an almost sinking state, and was efficiently repaired even at the exposed outer anchorage, by the mechanics of Durban. Still more recently, the mail-steamer, which maintains the postal communication with the Cape of Good Hope, carried away her rudder and stern-post in an unfortunate attempt to make her way out of the harbour under unfavourable circumstances. This vessel is an iron one—nevertheless, the defective parts were restored by the mechanics of the same place, in so satisfactory a way, that the steamer was enabled to brave a severe hurricane upon her next voyage, without the new work being injured by the strain. If once an easy access is secured for vessels of large burthen to the inner harbour, Port Natal will become the great refuge for the distressed shipping, and possibly also an important station for the imperial squadrons within the wide fields of these southern seas, to the great advantage of its own finances, and to the furtherance of its general prosperity.

The following rough sketch will give a very good idea of the peculiarities which have been alluded to, as determining both the difficulties and the facilities of the Port.



The Bluff-hills and the Berea-range are there seen constituting the low valley between; and the sand-spit of the immediate sea-shore (*Sand Downs*) marked running across the mouth of the valley, from the debouchure of the Umgeni towards the face of the Bluff, inclosing the harbour, but leaving the bar-encumbered channel between the Sand-point and the Bluff-ridge to connect its inner spaces with the sea. Durban is represented as nestling upon its sand-flat under the protection of the sea-bank of blown dunes.

In consequence of the abrupt termination of the Bluff-hills to the seaward, and the extent to which the parallel ridge of the Berea is set off from them towards the west, a tolerably deep gap or indentation is here hollowed into the coast line. This indentation forms the outer bay of Port Natal. There is excellent holding ground in this roadstead for ships; and in consequence of the heavy winds blowing on this shore, either from the north-east, or south-west, in a general direction parallel with the line of the coast, it is always possible on the occurrence of a gale to beat out to sea, provided the anchor has not been dropped too near to the shore. The only danger seems to be that the vessel may have been riding so far in, as to be unable to clear and weather the projecting Bluff, in case of being compelled to run towards the south. The few accidents which have happened to vessels visiting Port Natal have occurred either from this cause, or in attempts to get into the harbour in the presence of unfavourable conditions. Ships arriving at Natal, now drop their anchors in the outer bay and wait until a north-east breeze sets in, and the Port-boat gives intimation that there is sufficient depth of water in the channel for the passage of the bar. If the ship be a large one, several days may elapse before the two requisite conditions combine, and an expensive and tantalizing detention has to be experienced. This possibility of course tells upon the charges for freight, and so affects the pockets of the colonists by raising the prices of all sea-borne necessities and luxuries. One very important step has just been taken to lessen this evil. The colonial government has ordered a steam-tug for the service of the Port, and as soon as this arrives, vessels either in the harbour, or at the outer

anchorage, will always be able to avail themselves of any favourable state of the bar to free themselves from detention. The steam-tug will at least cut off one-half of the difficulty. It will also afford a means of communicating with ships lying at the outer anchorage, in weather when the ordinary Port-boat would be quite unable to face the rollers of the bar, and will be made instrumental in loosening and disturbing the accumulation of sand as it passes to and fro over the impediment. The steam-tug and harbour railway promise to mark the year 1859 as one deserving a "red letter" in the annals of Natal.

A light is occasionally shewn upon the Bluff at night, either when there are vessels in the roadsted, or when certain vessels are expected to arrive. It is, however, in contemplation to turn this arrangement into a more permanent establishment, and to erect a fixed lighthouse upon the hill. Outwardly-bound ships proceeding to the Indian Ocean or to the Pacific, give the "Cape of Storms" (*Cape of Good Hope*) as wide a berth as they can; but if there were a fixed lighthouse upon the coast of Natal, it is probable that many would endeavour to sight the Bluff, in order to verify their position, and that some would resort to the Port for supplies and other purposes. It is quite within the scope of human occurrences that Durban may one day become a much frequented place of call.

Durban itself stands on what was a sand-waste not long ago. It has not even now lost all traces of its origin. Some efforts are now being made to convert its footpaths into firm promenades, and seringa-trees (a species of lilac) are planted along the sides of the streets, and thrive even in the barren soil in which they stand. But the greater part of the streets are ankle deep in loose sand, which is peculiarly laborious and disagreeable to walk in, and only becomes firm to the feet after a fall of rain. In the west end of the town, the houses are loosely scattered about with blank spaces around them, and the general impression made upon the eye is that of a cluster of rough cottages, many of them of the character of villagers' cottages in England, distributed very confusedly upon the waste surface of a sea-side dune. The eastern end of the town consists principally of a broad and long thoroughfare, bordered on each side by an almost

continuous but very irregular row of stores and shops. Many of these buildings are at once commodious and substantial, and bear looking into with something more than a casual glance. Some are even two-storied, and here and there a structure designed for some particular service begins to try to look as if it had been transplanted, with its proprietors, from England. Most of these stores are places of residence, as well as of business. But many of the merchants of the town have now built little villas for themselves on the top of the Berea, to which they retire in the evening, and from which they come forth in the morning. The land has suddenly become of such value on the top of this range of hills, that it is no longer to be purchased in the spots most eligible for dwelling-houses. It has recently been selling for £20 per acre. The corporation of Durban, to which this ground belongs, will now only let allotments upon a long lease of twenty-one or fifty years. The annual rental ranges from fifteen to forty shillings per acre.

Durban now has a church for the Episcopalians, and chapels for the Wesleyans, Congregationalists, and Roman Catholics. There are several hotels and boarding-houses, where fair accommodation can be had. The water is procured from wells sunk in the sand, and as might be expected, is not of unquestionable quality. The affairs of the town are regulated by a Town Council and Mayor, elected by the burgesses. The white population now amounts to about 1000 individuals. A single person may find board and lodging in Durban, at houses of public entertainment, at a cost of from fifteen to twenty-five shillings a week. Small unfurnished dwelling-houses may be hired at a rental of from £2 to £3 the month.

There is a Mechanics' Institute in Durban, possessing a tolerable library of about 1300 volumes, and a reading-room, well supplied with periodicals. Lectures are frequently delivered at this Institution, and membership is constituted by a small annual subscription of twelve shillings. Two weekly newspapers, the *Natal Mercury*, and the *Natal Star*, are printed and published at Durban.

One of the most interesting efforts that has hitherto been made in the direction of practical science in Durban consists in

the formation of a Botanical Garden on the lower slope of the Berea hills, about a mile and a quarter from the town. The ground is the property of a society bearing the name of the "Agricultural and Horticultural Society," and extends over an area of fifty acres, of which twenty-five are under cultivation. The expense of the establishment is defrayed by small annual subscriptions contributed by the members of the society, and by a yearly grant from the Government. The cultivated portions of the gardens are well laid out, and in different parts may be seen, in the very highest stage of luxuriance, banana groves with their mammoth plumes of leaves and enormous bunches of golden fruit; beds of crowned pine-apples; hedges of fruit-laden mulberries; the papaw, the mango, the cinnamon-laurel, the orange, the lemon, the sugar-cane, the cotton plant, the arrow-root plant; ginger, indigo, and magnificent specimens of thick-leaved euphorbias, cactuses and aloes. The Botanical Gardens of Durban have now been in existence ten years, and have rendered very considerable service in demonstrating experimentally the capabilities of the climate.

CHAPTER VI.

THE UPLANDS AND THEIR CAPABILITIES.

OXEN, SHEEP, AND WHEAT—THE KLIP RIVER AND WEENEN COUNTIES.

THE uplands of Natal consist of the two large counties lying above and within the trident fork of the Tugela; that is, of the Klip River county and Weenen, and of the higher portions of the counties of the Umvoti and Maritzburg. There is also wild unsettled land belonging to this upper division south of the Umkomanzi.

The two large counties of Weenen and Klip River, which together form by far the greater part of these uplands, contain between them an area of nearly four million acres of land. The county of Weenen (*i. e.* “*weeping*”) takes its name from the small village now established on the Great Bushman’s river, at the precise spot where the massacre of the Dutch by the forces of Dingaan, occurred in 1838. The Klip River county is so called because the Klip (or “*stone*”) River runs through its midst to join the Upper Tugela. The county itself well deserves the designation on its own account. For many miles in extent its hill-sides are literally covered with boulders of trap.

The lands of these uplands, which lie upon an average between 2,500 feet and 3,000 feet above the sea, are super-eminently the grazing grounds of the colony. They supply the meat and butter to the more densely-peopled districts below. Horned cattle thrive upon these high pastures almost without any attention from their owners. The oxen in many places run over the land by night and by day, and through summer and winter, with simply the general supervision of the master and the eye of a

Kafir herdsman upon them to keep them from straying away; and after five or six years of this free life, they are turned into beef. Several of the Dutch farmers send down annually to the market three or four thousand pounds, and in extraordinarily good seasons, six thousand pounds of butter. The butter is of course salted, and generally coarsely and carelessly made; but it finds a very ready sale in default of a more delicate article. Occasionally small quantities of a very excellent kind are to be procured from choice dairy farms.

Up to the year 1855, the pastoral farming of the upland districts was a very profitable and thriving occupation. But in that disastrous year the epidemic lung-sickness (a species of malignant pneumonia) crossed the border from the old colony, and attacked the cattle with fell virulence. The disease proved to be very capricious, devastating the herds of one individual, and leaving those of neighbouring farms altogether unscathed. All kinds of remedial treatment were alike unavailing. The only device which seemed to possess any power over the murrain, was the inoculating yet sound cattle from portions or exudations of the diseased lungs of oxen, which had fallen victims to the epidemic. From 80 to 85 per cent of the cattle, which are thus inoculated, are found to recover from the disorder, and to be capable subsequently of again taking the disease in only a mild and comparatively harmless form. The inoculation is generally performed in the tail, and more or less of this member is destroyed by the virulence of the poison. The inoculated cattle which have passed the ordeal, are seen making vain efforts to whisk away the flies, with the instrument supplied by nature for this useful purpose, largely shorn of its proper proportions in consequence of more or less of it having sloughed away during the process of recovery. Not more than four per cent of cattle prove to be incapable of catching the lung-sickness in the first instance. Before the appearance of the lung-sickness in the colony of Natal, good cows and oxen sold for prices varying between two and four pounds. At the present time six and seven pounds are paid for fat beasts for slaughtering. The disease has proved more destructive in the old colony, than it has in Natal; and the Cape butchers and dealers consequently

now purchase beasts in the Klip River and Weenen divisions at high prices, for their own markets. Advertisements are not uncommonly seen in the Cape Colony papers, of the approaching introduction or sale of "Natal monsters," these "monsters" being neither alligators nor hippopotami, but bullocks fattened on the wild pastures of the Natal hills.

Colonial cows do not yield milk as abundantly as their cousins of the English farms. Some part of this result may probably be due to the peculiar management to which the milch cows are subjected by their keepers, and therefore it may be capable of being advantageously modified in the course of time. Cow-keeping in Natal is now pretty much what it was in England centuries ago. A bundle of green forage, or a proportionate amount of artificial food given daily to milch cows, increases their yield threefold, and indeed keeps the winter quantity up to summer mark. The usual measure adopted for milk is the so-called quart bottle, a vessel which is always conveniently at hand, on account of the great number of its tribe which come into the colony laden with porter and ale. Milk enough to fill two or three such bottles is about the average daily yield of Dutch cows. Cows of the Zulu breed often do not give more than a coffee-cup full of milk in the day, over and above the maintenance of their own calves. The custom in matters of vaccine economy is to leave the calf and cow to run together all day, and then to shut them up separate at night, and milk the cow in the morning before the calf is given over to it again. Animals of superior breed are occasionally known to give as much as fifteen bottles of milk in a day. This, however, is a rare exception, and such cows are valued at a rate proportioned to their productiveness. The Dutch farmers who have large herds, expect to get about one pound of butter per week from each cow during nine months in the year, and to sell the same at from ninepence to one shilling per pound. The butter is salted and sent down to Maritzburg once a year, where it is exchanged for a variety of household necessaries. The greater part is exported to the Cape and to the Mauritius; the towns of the colony being themselves supplied from their own more immediate neighbourhood. Cheese is gradually becoming a

favourite branch of dairy manufacture, on account of a greater weight of it than of butter being produced from a given quantity of milk. The principal demand for it lies among the English colonists.

There are four distinct kinds of horned cattle encountered upon the pasture farms of Natal:—1. A coarse-boned, long-legged breed, with enormous horns. This is best calculated for *treking* work, on account of its activity, and is known as the “*Africander*” breed. 2. A more fleshy and thickset animal, with smaller horns and softer hoofs. This was originally imported from Holland, and is in high esteem for milking; it is known as the “*Fatherland*” breed. 3. A diminutive, active, and somewhat humped animal, which is found chiefly among the natives, and which seems to have, with its masters, an inbred detestation of all kinds of artificial restraints. This animal is, in all probability, a cross between an Asiatic quadruped and a Spanish beast from the Portuguese South American provinces; the tendency to rise in the back being derived from the eastern side of the parentage. This is known as the Zulu breed. 4. A long-legged animal with remarkably poor quarters, and with horns even bigger than the *Africander*’s. This belongs to the “*Basuto*” or “*Macatees*” breed. This animal is not often seen, and is of very low value indeed. There is every chance that the best breeds of *Fatherland* will now be further improved, as valuable bulls have been recently introduced for breeding purposes by enterprising colonists. Hides are tanned in the colony upon a limited scale; and untanned, they constitute a very important branch of exports. Recently the exportation of hides has formed an unfortunately large item in colonial business on account of the ravages of the lung sickness.

In the instance of the seemingly inauspicious visitation of the cattle murrain to the pastoral lands of Natal, as so commonly happens in the worldly concerns of men, good came out of evil. The lung sickness of 1855 has placed mutton upon the tables of the colonists of 1859. The most thriving Dutch farmers, seeing ruin staring them in the face from this unexpected danger, bethought them that their brethren in the old colony were in a

measure compensated for their losses from the same cause by the success of their sheep. They accordingly introduced woolled sheep of the Merino variety from the Cape colony, and after a certain amount of care during the acclimatizing period, the animals were found to thrive remarkably well. The consequence is that flocks are now spreading over the upland pastures in increasing numbers every year. The lambs cast in the colony almost invariably prove hardy and strong. The success which has attended sheep-farming has, indeed, already proved to be so signal that the occupation is now pretty generally becoming the employment of the settlers in the upper districts, and will before long secure to them wealth and independence. One or two statements of facts will be deemed amply sufficient to establish this assertion.

Three years ago Mr. Carwin, formerly landrost of Harrismith beyond the Drakenberg, invested £90 in sheep. He has since frequently had mutton for his own table from the flock. During the year before last, he made £8 of his wool. During last year he made £16 of it. At the present time he has pocketed altogether more than the original outlay made for the sheep, and he has now a flock of 250 all in the finest condition.

Mr. Edwin Parkinson, of Shafton Grange, an estate upon the Kar Kloof, sixteen miles to the north of Maritzburg, entered upon sheep-farming in 1855. The following statement gives the cost of his venture up to the year 1858.

				£	s.	d.
1855.—Oct. 31.	Purchase of 45 ewes, at 14s.	31	1	0
	Expenses of bringing to farm	1	15	0
	Kafir wages for herding	0	12	0
1856.—Jan 31.	One ram	1	0	0
Dec. 31.	Year's wages of herd	3	0	0
	Food for herd	3	0	0
1857.—Dec. 31.	Year's wages for herd	3	0	0
	Food for herd	3	0	0
1858.—Aug. 23.	Eight months' wages for herd	2	0	0
	Food for herd	2	0	0
Total outlay				£50	8	0

In the August of 1858, the profit side of this gentleman's account stood as follows:—

				£	s.	d.
1855.—Nov. 31.	Sale of 83 lbs. of wool, at 10½d. ...			3	12	7½
1857.—February.	Sale of 110 lbs. of wool, at 1s. ...			5	10	0
Dec. 31.	Sale of 3 rams			3	5	0
	Sale of 3 fat wethers			3	6	0
	Sale of 3 ewes			2	2	0
1858.—Janry. 6.	454 lbs. of wool, at 1s. 6d. ...			34	1	0
	Sale of 10 rams, at 20s. ...			10	0	0
	Sale of 22 fat wethers ...			18	8	0
	Sale of 4 ewes			4	0	0
Total money produce				£94	4	7½
Total cost				50	8	0
Balance of profit over expenditure ...				43	16	7½
But in addition to this, the stock now on hand amounts to 160 sheep, worth 20s. each (six having been slaughtered for home use) ...						
				160	0	0
Sum total of produce				£203	16	7½

Here an outlay of £50 8s. yields in three years a return of £203 16s. Mr. Parkinson states that his losses, including lambs, for the three years, averaged about 8 per cent. per annum. The sheep were taken great care of; well shedded, and in wet weather abundantly supplied with grass or straw. In the winter season, a few turnips were thrown into the kraal for them every evening, and this contributed greatly to keep them in good condition.

This gentleman, in support of the opinion, that both the climate and pasturage of his part of the colony are eminently favourable for the growth of wool, also draws attention to the fact that the first clipping of the comparatively newly-arrived sheep yielded eighty-three pounds of wool, or nearly two pounds per head. The second clipping from the same sheep, with simply the addition of one ram, yielded one hundred and ten pounds of wool, or nearly two and a-half pounds per head. The next clipping in November, 1857, yielded *four pounds and a-half* for each sheep. It is a somewhat remarkable fact that wool grown in the Dutch states beyond the Drakenberg has

generally a weak place in the middle of each fibre, and readily breaks there when submitted to strain. This is caused by the pastures yielding an insufficient food for the maturation of wool at the change of the season where the extremes of summer and winter are very strongly marked. The extremes of season are not experienced in the same strength in Natal, and consequently Natal grown wool is without this imperfection.

Sheep are now all but universally sought after by the farmers of the open and fertile county of the Umvoti; and there is not a single instance of disappointment to be met with in the district. One gentleman states his experience to be a loss annually of two, or at the very most, three per cent. of the lambs; and that this loss has been mainly due to the richness of the grass, and the difficulty of restraining the animals to the most suitable localities while feeding. Some sheep died from actual over-fatness, and the proprietor alluded to now allows his sheep to graze only six hours out of the twenty-four, and finds that this plan is eminently successful; no deaths whatever having taken place since it has been pursued. The great practical point in the management of sheep in Natal seems to be to protect them from extremes of temperature, and to shelter them carefully after shearing.

Some little difficulty is experienced in procuring supplies of sheep in quantities at all proportioned to the present demand. With a view to aid in the removal of this difficulty, a company of gentlemen has recently been formed to import flocks, and to sell them to the farmers at prices that yield a fair profit to the company, to be re-invested in further importation. The first-fruits of this enterprize have already been gathered in, and £33 per cent. were realized by the company. A great number of sheep have been brought into Natal and disposed of. They were purchased at the average price of 16s. per head, and sold at the average price of 24s.

It is now received, then, as an established fact, that sheep-farming is as profitable to capitalists in the upland districts of Natal, as sugar-growing is on the coast-lands, and that it is quite as remunerative as it is in any part of the world. When, in connection with this fact, another important one is brought

under the attention, namely, that in this very district, there still remain three millions of acres of land belonging to the crown, which can all be purchased at the up-set price of four shillings per acre, it will be seen that these high regions form a real land of promise to the sheep-farmer. The yearly rent paid by many farmers of England and the Scotch Lowlands to their landlords, would in Natal buy a farm and stock it off-hand with the best bred Merinos! There are four distinct advantages which the sheep-farmer possesses over all other occupiers of land in Natal:—1. The amount of capital invested may be anything the proprietor pleases; the settler may begin as well with fifty sheep as with one thousand. 2. The current expenses of the occupation are comparatively insignificant; they amount to little more than the small wages of the Kafir herdsmen. 3. The returns are both quick and considerable. 4. There is always an unlimited market for the sale of wool, and a ready one for the sale of mutton.

The number of sheep in the colony of Natal, at the end of the last year was, according to official returns, 86,902. The price then paid for wool in Maritzburg and Durban was thirteen-pence the pound. Five years ago, mutton was scarcely ever seen in the colony. It is now always to be procured of excellent quality in the butchers' shops at Maritzburg, at sixpence per pound.

The pastoral lands in Natal are kept in good grazing order by a very rude and simple proceeding. In the dry season, the ground is encumbered by a stiff parched stubble, which entirely destroys its use as nourishing pasture. The colonists and Kafirs get rid of this encumbrance in a very cavalier way. They set fire to it and burn it down, and a young tender grass then very soon springs from the blackened soil. As the old parched grass is burnt in patches, the firing is continually in progress from the month of May until the month of September, as occasion serves. The opportunity is generally taken to light the fire when there is not much wind. The conflagration then spreads in a circle, or wide bow; running over the ground with considerable speed, and making its way against the wind. It continues to blaze until it is extinguished by the heavy dew of

night, or until it comes to some limiting road or water-course. There is scarcely an evening during the winter months, when several of these fires may not be seen burning in various directions of the wide landscape. Before dark the line of the fire is marked by puffs of white smoke as the flame runs along the ground, not inaptly re-calling the idea to the mind of a railway train rushing across some broad English plain. Long-legged cranes hover about this line, and flit through the smoke, keeping an attentive eye upon the small fugitives which are roused from their lurking-places by the sudden and unwelcome heat. In the darkness the fire is visible as a tracing of brilliant flame winding and curving over the inequalities of the ground, and sometimes descending the side of a distant hill, like a stream of incandescent lava. If a high wind rises while the grass is burning, the fire rushes along before it with irresistible impetuosity, not unfrequently attaining a speed of four or five miles in the hour. The only possible means of arresting its fell progress, under such circumstances, is to deprive it of its food by anticipation; small patches of grass are burned, and the flame beaten out, ere it can obtain too strong a hold, in the direction in which the conflagration seems to be advancing, and while it is still distant. Buildings and the huts of natives are protected in this way, but the careful proprietor provides this safeguard beforehand, and does not delay his defensive proceedings until the danger is at his door. He makes a wide clearing around his buildings and homestead, as soon as the dry season fairly sets in. If the wind be very strong, the fire will leap even wide roads with the greatest ease. At such times, the line of flame is seen advancing at a terrific pace, with a loud intermitting roar, which swells every time the breeze freshens for an instant, its red crests leaping eight or nine feet above the ground; a cloud of pungent suffocating smoke, interspersed with fragments of half-burnt charcoal, and a scorching glare preceding its march. A notion is generally formed by those who hear of these fires, without witnessing their doings, that the face of the country is rendered very monotonous and gloomy after they have swept by. The fact, however, is far otherwise. The burning is only carried on in limited patches, and by

successive steps, and consequently the sable of the parts first consumed is turned, by the freshly springing vegetation, into a tint of velvety olive, before the ground in the immediate neighbourhood is tinged in its turn by the same dull hue. As each patch, too, is of very irregular outline, the slopes are finally mottled over by such a diversity of lights and shades, that the details of the hills are brought into more striking relief than when clothed with an even tint of green, and the landscape gains, rather than loses, in picturesqueness.

On nearly all the sheep-farms of the uplands, wheat is grown for the consumption of the family. On some of them, more than this is now produced, and sent down to the markets below. It will be found ultimately to be a very satisfactory proceeding to grow wheat upon the land where sheep have been for some time penned at night. Thousands of muids may be raised in this way at very little cost. The distance of the upland farms from the markets does at the first glance seem to be a very serious drawback upon this kind of activity. Weenen is seventy miles from Maritzburg, Grey Town forty-one miles, and Ladismith one hundred miles. There is, however, an opposite side of the question, which may very well be taken into consideration as a set-off. The colonial waggon carries three thousand pounds as an average load. When the settler or his driver has placed this quantity of either wheat or wool in the commodious vehicle, and has packed his iron pot, tea-kettle, and frying-pan, and some little store of food, by the side, he can inspan his twelve or fourteen oxen, and *trek* all the way to Maritzburg without expending a single sixpence for entertainment upon the journey. In Maritzburg, he outspans upon the open ground where there is nothing to pay for accommodation or feed, and then he returns as he came. When two or three drivers travel in company, the journey bears more the character of a pleasure-excursion than anything else. Provided the oxen do not get astray, and that rain do not fall, it is very much like a chronic pic-nic, prolonged through several days. While the oxen are being driven up from their pasturing ground in the morning, by the native attendants, coffee is prepared and consumed. A journey of twelve miles is then accomplished before the heat of the day. On outspanning, dinner is taken beneath the shade

of a tree, or on the bank of some cooling stream, and another ten or twelve miles are leisurely accomplished afterwards in the cool of the afternoon, and a resting-place is selected for the night.

It is scarcely possible to conceive a more independent position than that which is occupied by the settler, when he possesses a farm in these upland regions, well stocked with sheep, cows, and poultry. When the waggon goes down to the market with the staple productions of the farm, wool or wheat, the produce of the dairy is exchanged for the grocery and clothes required by the family. The flour, mutton, poultry, vegetables, and fruit, which he feeds on, he produces for himself, and there is abundance of venison on the hills and plains around, if he chooses to go after it. He is secure of all the necessities, and some of the luxuries, of life. Even if at the first all his capital has been absorbed in the purchase and stocking of his farm, he still has nothing whatever to fear. There is no rent-day looming before him. There are no heavy periodical payments for labour; no poor-rate, no income-tax, to be met. All that he has to do is to set the land producing what he wants for himself, and then to grow rich upon any surplus that appears. If after his purchase of land and stock, he has but eight months' supply of food, and a few pounds for native labour, in hand, he may sit down by his own hearth, with a sense that he is an independent man for life.

As figures in some cases convey more definite impressions than words, it may be as well here to show what the capital would be, that would suffice for embarking in sheep-farming in Natal, upon the most satisfactory scale. The following statement comprises all that the most ambitious settler would require:—

	£.
For 3000 acres of land, at 4s.	600
600 sheep, at £1	600
A colonial waggon and span of oxen	150
A saddle horse	15
Twenty cows and heifers	60
Pigs and poultry	10
Reserve for building, food, and wages	365
Total	<u>£1800</u>

This estimate supposes that the settler has brought out with him to the colony his plough, harrow, and smaller implements of husbandry and tools. If he has not done this, another £50 will supply them in the colony. It is now the better course indeed to purchase them in Durban or at Maritzburg. Under arrangements of this kind it may fairly be expected that the clipping of the first year will yield what would be deemed a fair rate of interest at home for the entire capital, namely £90; this, of course, would be irrespective of the gain from increase of the flock.

Men of smaller means might advantageously enter upon the same speculation with £600 at their command. This sum should be expended in the following way.

	£.
1000 acres of land, at 4s.	200
200 sheep	200
A colonial cart and oxen	60
Ten cows	30
Pigs and poultry	5
Reserve for building, food, and wages	105
	<hr/>
	£600
	<hr/>

It would, however, prove a better course with such limited means to hire a larger farm, and employ the capital in stocking it. Upon farms of this description, any quantity of good grass-hay may be provided for litter and food at the beginning of the dry season, at a very small expense.

Farms are continually to be purchased in the uplands at one-half the government upset price, or even less. Excellent farms of 8000 acres frequently change their owners for from £300 to £600. The usual and certainly the best course of proceeding for the English settler is to purchase from the Dutch, after these pioneers have made a farm habitable, and, therefore, to pay for the improvements. The Dutchman then *treks* off to find another piece of wild land to get ready for the next customer. Late in the last year, several families left the Dutch states beyond the Drakenberg, owing to the unsettled state of their affairs, and crossed the border, bringing with them into Natal flocks numbering some twelve or thirteen thousand sheep.

This will form a very welcome addition to the resources at the command of breeders. Very recently a placard announced the sale of 1000 wethers and 2000 sheep from these very flocks.

The growth of wheat in Natal has not advanced at an equal pace with that of some other kinds of agricultural produce. One reason for this is that the first experiments with this grain were not very successful, on account of their having been made by inexperienced persons who managed badly. Wheat, nevertheless, thrives readily and admirably on the uplands, and also does very well in the midland districts. The Dutch have long grown sufficient for the supply of their own wants. The cultivation is now extending fast among both the Dutch and English settlers, especially around and beyond the Mooi River. The recent erection of powerful mills driven by steam, by water, and by wind, has already given a great impulse to activity of this particular kind. The crop is most generally grown *in the winter season*, because in this way the injurious effect of the summer rains is avoided. Wheat grown in summer is unfortunately liable to rust.

When the wheat crop is good, the returns to the grower are very considerable. The only outlay required is the cost of ploughing, fencing, and sowing, which are all for the most part done by the farmer's own hand. The cost of cultivating twenty acres in this way, reckoning the wages and food of two Kafirs for driving the oxen at the rate of ten shillings each the month, does not exceed ten shillings per acre. The thrashing is principally effected after the primitive fashion of stamping or trampling out the grain by horses or oxen. Thrashing machines worked by horses are now, however, beginning to make their appearance on the best managed farms, and before long the horses will of necessity be replaced in many situations by water-power.

So far as the actual yield of the crop is concerned, this of course varies materially, according to the character of the season in the particulars of drought and rain. One farmer, in the Unvoti county, reaped 120 muids (of $2\frac{2}{3}\frac{1}{2}$ bushels each) from 30 acres of land which had been sown with 5 muids of seed. Another proprietor states that he reaped 95 muids off 15 acres

which had been sown with 3 muids of seed. The average price given for wheat is 27s. per muid. The price ranges from 24 to 37 shillings per muid.

There are now about 1000 acres of land in the colony engaged in the growing of wheat; these are principally situated in the upland district, and the average produce for the whole may be stated at about 6 muids per acre. The exact quantity cannot be ascertained, because the Dutch are unwilling to furnish returns of their produce. In many places the entire meal, without any separation of the flour and bran, is made into bread. The meal supplied in this crude form, is known as Boers' meal, and the bread thus made is equal in excellence to the finest brown bread that can be procured in England, and is alike nutritious and wholesome. The Boers themselves generally pass the meal through a fine sieve, and separate the coarsest bran before they use it.

All European vegetables grow well, and yield abundantly, in these upper lands. The peach, the fig, the granadilla, the apple, the pear, the quince, and the almond, thrive. The grape ripens at Ladismith. It has been already stated that very fine oranges are produced at Weenen. The same delicious fruit is also abundant at the very foot of the Drakenberg, in a grove which was planted there many years ago by Mr. Posselt, at the station of the Berlin mission.

The county of Weenen occupies a large extent of ground in this upland division. It contains 804 white inhabitants, who are principally Dutch, and 17,000 Kafirs. It is generally deemed to possess a less arid and stony soil than the Klip River County, and to be quite as well adapted for cattle and sheep, and better adapted for horses. Some of the most enterprising horse-breeders are found in this county. Sheep fed on its pastures rather increase in size as a breed. Many parts of the land are covered with bush, or forest, and are of a very rugged and broken character. The seat of the magistracy until very recently was at the village of Weenen, on the Great Bushman's River. This village consists of fourteen houses, scattered over a broad valley, entirely surrounded by lofty hills thickly covered by trees. Great extremes of heat and cold are experienced in

this sheltered nook, at opposite seasons of the year, and young stock are, therefore, difficult to rear. Grapes do not succeed as an ordinary crop, but they do extremely well when trained upon trellises. There is an abundant and never-failing supply of water. The climate and the soil are particularly adapted for the growth of corn, vegetables, and fruit. Tobacco grows luxuriantly, and a kind of brandy is distilled from the peaches, in large quantity, by the Dutch. There is a Dutch Reformed Church in the village, and a branch of the magistrates' office is still retained there; but the head-quarters are now placed upon the drift of the Great Bushman's River, at a spot which is to be called "*Estcourt*." The change has been made in consequence of the routes from all the passes of this portion of the Drakenberg converging towards this one drift.

There are at the present time in the county of Weenen, 14,690 head of cattle, 9,760 sheep, 6,250 goats, 1,510 horses. During the last year, the principal produce of the county has been 4,500 muids of wheat, 50,000 muids of Indian corn, irrespective of that reared by the natives for their own use, 2000 muids of oats, 150 muids of barley, 400 muids of sweet and common potatoes, and 120 muids of dried fruit.

The Klip River county is the extreme corner of the colony. It stretches away to the north-east into the wide angle formed between the remote Buffalo River, and the furthest stretch of the Drakenberg. The Klip River County and Weenen form each a triangle, whose base in either case is the Upper Tugela. In the case of Weenen, the apex of the triangle is turned towards the south, and lies where the Great Bushman's River and the Drakenberg join. In the case of Klip River county, the apex is to the north, and where the Buffalo River and the Drakenberg meet. Families of the Dutch are at the present time *treking* continually into this remote pastoral nook. A road is at the present time in process of formation from the mountain pass near the source of the Klip River, through Grey Town and the Umvoti, direct to the Bay, avoiding the more circuitous route through Weenen and Maritzburg.

The Klip River county has a white population of about 1250 individuals, of whom a sixth part are English, and five-sixths

Dutch. It has a Kafir population of 6377; and of these about nine hundred individuals have engaged themselves in service during the past year. There are in the county 2000 acres of land under cultivation; the produce of the last year having been 4050 muids of wheat, 1200 muids of Indian corn, 300 muids of oats, 300 muids of barley, 800 muids of potatoes, 100 muids of beans, and 30 muids of dried fruit. It may be worthy of remark that while the county of Weenen, with a Kafir population of seventeen thousand, yields nearly fifty thousand muids of Indian corn, the county of Klip River, with a Kafir population of six thousand, yields only twelve thousand muids of Indian corn. There are in Klip River county at the present time 25,110 head of cattle, 35,570 sheep, 7,194 goats, and 1,714 horses. A considerable quantity of barley and of oat-hay is grown for fodder. The yearly produce of butter is estimated at about 200,000 pounds.

The seat of the Magistracy of the Klip River County is the Town of Ladismith ("*Lady Smith*"), situated 100 miles away from Maritzburg, and bearing the odd name it does that it may be a suitable partner for the Dutch settlement of Harrismith ("*Sir Harry Smith*") on the further side of the Drakenberg. The foundations of Ladismith were laid seven years ago. It now has a white population of 100 individuals, principally English; and possesses a Government-office, a court-house, two houses of public entertainment, several well-stocked stores, and a Dutch Reformed church. A Government district surgeon is resident in Ladismith. There is also an English Episcopalian church in process of construction. Ladismith is on the high road to one of the principal passes of the Drakenberg, and is the seat of a considerable Dutch trade. It is also the headquarters of a gentleman volunteer-corps, called the "Frontier Guards."

CHAPTER VII.

THE MIDLAND DISTRICTS.

DOUBLE-CROPPING—THE GROWTH OF FORAGE—DAIRY FARMING—INDIAN CORN—WOOD-CUTTING—TRANSPORT WORK—THE COUNTY OF MARITZBURG—YORK—RICHMOND—THE UMVOTI—THE BREEDING OF HORSES—THE CITY OF MARITZBURG.

THE high road from the Port to Maritzburg passes through the wild valley-terrace, which immediately surmounts the coast lands, by winding along the escarpments of lofty hills, now ascending the slopes for some distance, and now dipping a little into intermediate hollows. In places it is cut into the hardest sandstone and granite rock. Improvements are still being made in various places in its line; easier gradients being adopted from time to time, and shorter cuts found. At a distance of about thirty miles from the coast, this road of a sudden emerges from the rocky wilderness, and enters upon a broad undulating plain, which presents a fine open grazing country before the eye, where the grass is of much finer quality than it is in the more luxuriant lands nearer to the sea. This plain is the district already alluded to as forming the Midland terrace, and standing between the highlands and the sea-coast lowlands, of the colony. Northwards this open plain extends quite to the hills of Maritzburg, that city being built upon its edge. Eastwards it runs through the lower tracts of the Umvoti. Westwards it passes through the upper district of the Umko-manzi. Its central part is taken up by the county of Maritzburg. This county indeed constitutes the heart of the colony, and may be taken as the chief representative of the Midlands; bearing in mind that it trenches northwards upon the

uplands, and southwards upon the broken, approximately tropical terrace. The settled parts of the Midlands are for the present, principally contained within the counties of Maritzburg and the Umvoti.

This Midland terrace is abundantly supplied with water: streams run down between the more prominent slopes and ridges, which succeed each other, like low billows, in seemingly never ending succession. Wood is not very abundant, but there is enough of it for the purposes of fuel. This is chiefly drawn from the kloofs and ravines, into which the water-courses are here and there changed. There are also in places more extended forests of valuable timber, of which some belong to private proprietors, and some are yet retained in the hands of the government.

All the corn crops and vegetables of Europe (excepting wheat) are grown throughout this Midland division of the colony with ease; the vegetables in a perfection rarely exceeded by the very best management in England. Two crops of most kinds can be obtained in each year. Potatoes yield very great returns. Five years ago, Mr. Arbuthnot dug up 100 muids (300 bushels) of marketable tubers from one acre of land. The potatoes were planted in the beginning of September, and dug up at Christmas. A part of the land from which they were taken, was then planted with French beans, and these yielded at the rate of twelve muids, or thirty-six bushels per acre. The potatoes were sold at the low price of 5s. per muid, upon an average, and made £25; the beans at £1 per muid, and brought £12. The gross money-produce of the single acre in the single year was £37. Potatoes now rarely sell for less than eight shillings the muid; at this price, therefore, £15 more would have been added to the sum. This may be taken as a somewhat exceptional instance of what may be done within twenty-five miles of the capital.

In raising two crops in the same year from one piece of ground, great attention needs be given to select the crops in such a way that each shall be planted in the season most suitable for it, and that so the greatest possible advantage may be secured to it. No plant should ever be sown for the first

crop which is liable to be damaged by rain, because that crop must of necessity be harvested in the wet season. Potatoes and Indian corn are very good for the first crop. Wheat, French beans, oats, or flax, may succeed these. French beans are very easily damaged by rain, and therefore should not on any account be grown but as the second crop. The best time for planting them is the month of January, because when so planted, they ripen in the early part of the dry season, before the nights become too cold. If planted too late in the season, they are apt to get nipped by the slight frost which occurs occasionally at night, in this division of the country. French beans follow potatoes very advantageously, because they constitute an early crop, and are soon off the ground. Wheat, on the other hand, being comparatively hardy, and standing a little frost with impunity, very well follows Indian corn, which requires more time to ripen than potatoes do. Mr. Deane, a settler on the Illovo, recently planted Indian corn on well-manured land for a first crop. In ploughing the land, a Kafir dropped the grains in every third or fourth furrow at a distance of about six inches from each other. Twenty muids, or sixty bushels, of Indian corn were harvested from an acre of this land. It was then sown with "Golden ball" wheat, and this sowing yielded as a second crop, eleven muids, or thirty-three bushels. At the average price of these articles in Maritzburg, namely, 12s. per muid for mealies, and 27s. per muid for wheat, the year's return for one acre of land amounted to £26 17s.

Manure is not actually needed for the greater part of the lands in this district. There are many choice spots where successive crops have now been taken from the soil year after year, without any signs of exhaustion or diminished fertility having made their appearance. On the upper Umkomanzi wheat has been taken from the same land thirteen times in succession. There can, nevertheless, be no doubt that the productiveness of most farms, employed in the cultivation of crops, would be greatly increased by the use of manure. The ground reserved as permanent pasture, would of course be comparatively independent of such artificial aid.

In the district immediately round Maritzburg, oats are

extensively grown, and the growth proves to be eminently remunerative; a ready market being constantly at hand, at the camp and in the town. The crop is reaped before it is quite ripe, and sold entire for forage; the straw being chopped up and mingled with the grain when it is used as food. Forage of this kind forms the almost universal feed of stabled horses throughout the colony. Two crops of forage are generally grown in the year. About three tons per acre produced in each crop, and these sold at the present average price of 4s. per hundred pounds, bring in £17 per acre for one crop, or £34 per acre for the two crops. The price of forage fluctuates a little according to the comparative abundance or scarcity of the supply. Two years since the average price was one-third less than the sum named above. The price never sinks much below 4s., and it has risen to seven and eight shillings the hundred pounds. A farmer with six native labourers, costing him for wages and food 15s. each per month, can, under favourable circumstances, keep twenty acres of land under cultivation for the growth of forage. The contingencies to be allowed for as possible adverse occurrences, are, prolonged drought, destruction by birds and insects, failure of the crop, and difficulty at times of securing native labour. Many settlers have saved large sums of money by the cultivation of forage.

Dairy farming is capable of being made a source of high emolument in the neighbourhood of Maritzburg. Butter and cheese are certain of a market at the price of one shilling per pound. Bacon sells from sevenpence to fourteen-pence per pound, and is easily cured during the winter season in this division of the colony. The plan usually followed in rearing pigs, is to allow them to graze and root at large over the land, and pick up their own living, with the exception of a few handfuls of mealies furnished at night, until they are ready for fattening. They are then taken up and fed upon Indian corn for a few weeks. The sows make themselves curious covered litters of straw, hollowing out the ground and thatching the hollow above; they select sheltered, well-watered kloofs for these retreats. Fowls of all kinds are reared with the greatest

ease, and may be fattened upon Indian corn, for the table, at very trifling expense. A large species of poultry of the Cochin Chinese kind, possessing long feathered legs, is now in high favour among the Dutch. Ducks, geese, and turkeys are common appendages to the homesteads. The Guinea-fowl runs wild in the bush. There is one drawback to the keeping of poultry on the more open grounds ; that is the rapacity of the somewhat too abundant animals and birds of prey. Hawks not uncommonly carry off whole broods of chickens, and finish by taking the hen after her brood. The correct tactics for meeting these hostile invasions, are of course the employment of enclosed and covered poultry-yards, and coops, and the assiduous employment of the gun.

It was in this midland district that wheat originally failed from the constant attacks of rust. This difficulty seems now to have been in some measure obviated by the introduction of the "golden ball" variety. The "golden ball" has now been grown with perfect success in many parts of the district.

The midland division was from the first occupation of the country considered to furnish the finest fattening ground of the colony. The lung-sickness, however, fell upon it with such severity that for a time the fatal murrain seemed likely to cause the entire abandonment of the district as a pastoral field. The introduction of sheep and the cultivation of the "golden ball" wheat, have now put an end to all fears of this kind ; and what threatened to be so grave and irremediable an evil, has actually turned out to be a source of high and well-grounded hope. Four years ago the settlers in this district had fallen into the lazy habits of the purely pastoral life, and depended entirely for their wealth upon the natural yearly increase of their herds. If this state of affairs had been continued, the cattle market of Natal must within a few more years have been so glutted, that stock would have been of no value whatever. Now a very different future is in store for the midland proprietors. Sheep will be penned upon land destined for the plough, and when the plough has done its work, abundant crops of the finest wheat will be extracted from the ground. Excellent mutton will be furnished to the markets. Cattle, although in less abundance,

will be of much higher value. And large yearly returns will be made by corn crops and wool. The settler, instead of being dependent upon a single tightly-stretched cord, will have several strings to his bow.

It is now a perfectly established fact that sheep thrive quite as well in many localities of this division, as in the uplands beyond. The higher and most open grounds prove the best adapted to their needs. The natives have always had flocks of goats, and also of what are generally termed Kafir sheep; animals which have a large proportion of rough, wiry, dark-brown hair among their wool. This breed is most probably a modified or crossed variety of the Siberian goat, or "*Mouflon*" of Asia (*Caprovis Musimon*). Some authorities hold it to be merely a cross between the goat and the sheep. Such an origin is possible; the goat and the sheep do breed together, although not very readily, and the mule produced as an offspring is also fertile in a limited degree. M. F. Cuvier procured a female mule which coupled with a goat in its third year. Professor Cretzschmar, of Frankfort, succeeded in breeding with the Cashmere goat and the Saxon Merino sheep. Whatever may be the actual fact of this somewhat doubtful zoological question, the Kafir sheep makes excellent mutton, and has a tail which constitutes an esteemed delicacy upon the table. The animal weighs, when fat, about fifty or sixty pounds. Some years since it was thought that the woolled sheep would never succeed in the pastures of Southern Africa unless bred by crossing the ewes of the Kafir sheep with a Merino tup. The Dutch for a long time adopted this practice. Mr. Arbuthnot recently repeated the experiment, with a view to seeing the result for himself. He purchased twenty-five Kafir ewes and a Merino tup. The ewes and tup were allowed to run constantly together, under the idea that the increase would be more immediate under this arrangement, and the ewes dropped lambs twice in the year. The first cross produced a great improvement in the lamb, and a marked influence on the fleece. In the second cross most of the lambs were white, and many promised to have fleeces nearly as fine as pure sheep. Only two of the ewes first purchased died in the course of three years, and the losses in lambs did

not exceed seven per cent. annually. The entire produce was disposed of in the third year of the experiment, and its details of cost and profit then stood as specified below.

COST SIDE OF THE ACCOUNT.

				£	s.	d.
1855.	Twenty-five ewes, purchased at 9s.	...		11	5	0
	Purchase of one ram	1	0	0
	Total cost	£12	5	0

No other outlay was required. No extra keep was needed in winter. The old grass was simply burnt at intervals; and in this way plenty of food was secured all the year round.

PROFIT SIDE OF THE ACCOUNT.

				£.	s.	d.
1857.	Thirty lambs killed for home use, and partly sold at 4d. per pound	15	0	0
1858.	Fifty lambs, disposed of in the same way	...		25	0	0
	One hundred and eight sheep finally sold	...		50	0	0
	Total value	£90	0	0
	Balance of profit for the three years	...		77	15	0
	Original cost	£12	5	0

The Merino tup thrrove in every respect as well as the Kafir sheep; and there is no apparent reason why it should not have been a better proceeding to have purchased Merino instead of Kafir ewes at the first. More recent experience, indeed, tends to shew that the Merino breed is stronger than the Kafir, and lives where the Kafir fails.

Horses and mules occupy a considerable share of attention in the upper portions of the midland districts of the colony; the principal drawback being that they are now liable to be attacked at certain seasons by the horse-sickness; a very rapid and fatal epidemic inflammation of the lungs. The only protection from this scourge seems to be to drive the colts up to the higher lands, such as the summit of the Table-mountain, and to keep the riding-horses carefully stabled, especially about the decline of the summer. The horses belonging to the troops, which are

kept in stables and carefully tended all the year round, enjoy a comparative immunity from the disease.

Very great care is now given to the breeding and rearing of horses. Stallions have been imported from England, and from the Cape, in several instances at great cost. Races, established to test the qualities of the breeds, take place annually in five out of the six counties. The number of horses at present in the colony is estimated at about seven thousand. Upon the whole the higher part of the midland districts and the lower part of the uplands are considered to be the best suited for the breeding of this indispensable animal. Very good hackneys for the road may be constantly purchased at prices varying from £12 to £20. The horse which is best adapted for the purposes of the general traveller is of a small size, and accomplishes about six miles an hour by alternately walking and cantering. At this rate of travelling it is capable of making a journey of between fifty and sixty miles in the day. The journey between Durban and Maritzburg (fifty-four miles) is commonly performed by experienced horsemen in the single day. The two most important qualities for a horse to possess under the existing circumstances of the colony, are an easy pace, especially in cantering, and great endurance. A sedate and orderly disposition may be placed next, seeing that many of the colonial horses have a peculiar and favourite knack of disposing of their riders, when disinclined to carry them further, by putting their own heads between their knees, and then after a kind of rapid pirouette, throwing up their hind heels in a very determined and effective way. The horses possess fair opportunities of putting their "bucking" propensities into play, in consequence of many young colonists having their own first lessons in horsemanship to take in their adopted land.

Many parts of the midland districts are thickly peopled with Kafirs, who grow very large quantities of Indian corn and Kafir corn (millet), and dispose of their superabundant produce at comparatively low prices to the white settlers. The Indian corn is grown with the utmost facility in all parts of the colony; but the principal demand for it over and above the mere need of the native producer, of course lies in the more abundantly settled lands of the midland and lower districts. Many settlers are now

beginning to reap good incomes, by purchasing Indian corn of the natives in somewhat remote districts, and conveying it to the markets of the capital and Port, ground or unground, in their own waggons and carts. The rivers and streams in the midland districts afford great facilities for the establishment of grinding-mills. There are very few spots where some sufficient fall of water for the driving of machinery may not be found tolerably near. Water-mills are every day becoming more common. There are now five mills driven by water power in Maritzburg. There are also five meal-mills in daily operation in the neighbourhood of Richmond.

The Indian corn ("*zea mays*") maize, or mealie-plant, is a gigantic grass which bears its stamens and its grains in separate flowers. The culm, or stalk, springs to a height of seven or eight feet from the ground, and has broad bent-down grass-like leaves. The fertile flowers are arranged as a kind of spike which shoots out from the side of the culm and ripens into a large club-shaped cob, consisting of a dense fibrous stalk entirely covered over at the surface by closely and neatly-packed grains. In favourable seasons mealie cobs are occasionally produced, which are twelve inches in length, and weigh from three to four pounds each. As many as eight hundred grains may sometimes be picked from a single cob. There are also frequently two or three cobs produced from a single seed; the produce therefore of a sowing is incredibly large. In a general way the process of cultivation is of the rudest kind. The land is just broken with the plough, and the seed-corn is scattered broad-cast over the surface. When greater care is taken in the sowing, and the corn is planted at equal distances, and in regular rows, like the sugar-cane, the finest crops are obtained. The maize crop, when mature, forms a kind of miniature jungle, into which men may walk and be entirely lost to sight after the first few steps have been taken, the broad leaves waving and shaking above their heads. Even horsemen may ride into the thicket, and conceal themselves, when the culms are in their highest state of luxuriance. It has happened that an entire herd of oxen has marched into the recesses of a mealie garden and made a full and hearty meal, before their presence in the forbidden ground

has been discovered by the farmer, or his herds only a few yards away.

The mealie garden is an altogether indispensable possession in the colony. Its grain furnishes the principal part of the food of the Kafirs. Those who are in the service of the white settlers live almost entirely upon mealies, the grain being softened in boiling water, and sometimes crushed between stones. In towns, the ground corn, or mealie meal, is boiled up in a large iron pot into a kind of porridge. The pot is then placed on the ground and the porridge is taken from it in rough wooden spoons, by the Kafirs, who squat on their haunches around. The usual allowance for the adult's food is about a pint of the dry meal three times in the day. When a pound of meat is added to the rations twice in the week, the fare is considered a somewhat lordly one.

The Indian corn is, however, consumed by the white settler as well as by the Kafir, and forms a very wholesome and nutritive addition to his meals. The porridge, when eaten with milk and sugar, is a very agreeable food. The young mealie cob, roasted or boiled whole, and then placed on the table for the grain to be picked away from the stalk as it is eaten, is considered by many persons to constitute a very dainty dish, and by children is generally preferred to bread. Many a now prosperous settler can tell how, in the days of his early difficulties and struggles, he subsisted entirely for weeks at a stretch upon the produce of the patch of mealies surrounding his rough home, and how he waxed both fat and strong upon his fare. The Indian corn is not altogether so nutritive as the grain of wheat; but it is very much more fattening. Poultry, cattle, and horses fatten and thrive upon the uncrushed grain. Young mealie-plants thinned out from the crops when about six weeks old, and two feet high, are eaten entire by the horse, and greatly relished. The Indian corn grows very rapidly. The average yield of an acre of ground under the crop is about eleven muids, or thirty-three bushels, and the value of the produce varies with the season, and with circumstances, from four to twenty shillings the muid.

Barley has been tried as a forage-crop, and has been found to answer very well. The millet grows luxuriantly, and is

largely cultivated by the Kafirs as an article of food. It yields very abundantly, and furnishes a very minute, but nutritive grain, which is known in the colony under the name of "Kafir corn." Buck wheat, bearded wheat, and rye have all been grown in limited quantities, and can be raised without the slightest difficulty.

Small patches of the flax-plant have been successfully cultivated in the midland district, and there is every reason to believe that if sufficient care were given to the cultivation and manufacture, flax of very excellent quality might be produced. There are, indeed, several wild plants which yield fine and tenacious fibres. Two in particular; one a species of mallow, and the other a kind of nettle, are very abundant. The Kafirs form a coarse kind of string from many of the vegetable productions which are furnished by the ground around their kraals. They also use the dried leaf of a species of wild hemp for smoking. It is anticipated that the wild banana (*streletzia*), the palm, the plaintain, and the pine-apple will all be made available for the production of tenacious fibres, suitable for textile fabrics. Whilst alluding to the subject of the material of textile fabrics, it may be stated that the silk-worm has been found to do well both in the lowest and midland divisions of the colony, and samples of very excellent silk have been produced. The white mulberry-tree, which yields the best food for the worm, grows most luxuriantly and without requiring the slightest care. In the neighbourhood of Maritzburg, its cuttings strike immediately, and form little groves laden with fruit, within a couple of years. The tree is not bare of leaves more than six weeks in the mid-winter.

An excellent livelihood is made in the midland district by sawing timber. Forests belonging to private proprietors are let out to sawyers. Good workmen can readily earn from ten to fifteen shillings a day. The plan generally pursued by those who are without other capital than their thews and sinews, is for two men to enter into an agreement of partnership, and then having made their bargain with the proprietor of the place they have selected for their operations, these men erect a simple Kafir hut for a dwelling, and sink a pit. They next engage

some other person who possesses a waggon and oxen to carry the planks to market. The general agreement is that the value of the loads of plank shall be divided equally between the sawyers and the waggoner. The plank always meets with a ready sale, large quantities being exported to Cape Town. There is one very fine saw-mill (Thew's) worked by water, on the Elands River, within twenty-five miles of Maritzburg.

Transport work is also another source of very fair and certain income for individuals who like a wild and roving life. Having procured a waggon and oxen, the owner travels with loads of merchandize between Maritzburg and the Bay, or between Maritzburg and other spots where different kinds of commodities are required. It will be readily conceived that this must be a very certain source of income when it is borne in mind that the ox-waggon is at present the sole means of transport for all imported articles inwards, and for all exported produce outwards. Waggons are incessantly traversing the high roads of the colony, and they constitute a constant mode of communication even with the distant nooks of the Transvaal States. The cost of transport for a waggon load, of a ton and a-half, between Maritzburg and Durban, is £3. Many proprietors of waggons carry their own burthens instead of their neighbour's, and *trek* off beyond the boundaries of the colony with freights of beads, blankets, or picks, which they exchange among the independent tribes for cattle, ivory, wild beast skins, and ostrich feathers; and then, after an absence of two or three months, return into the colony with the proceeds of the traffic, to dispose of them there. At one time the trader's business was a very remunerative one; but the temptations of the high amount of profit, and the free roving life, have proved so attractive that the competition is now inconveniently large.

There are only two spots in the county of Maritzburg, apart from the metropolis itself, around which settlers have concentrated themselves; one of these is in the north of the county, and the other in the south. The northern village is named "York," and the southern one "Richmond."

The village of York is a thriving little settlement, chiefly inhabited by Yorkshire people. It was founded by a party of

emigrants from Hull, and the small community having been composed of steady and persevering individuals, is in the way of meeting with its appropriate reward. The settlers have principally directed their attention to the growth of oat-forage, which they send to Maritzburg. One farmer in York states that he made £300 by oat-forage in the last year. There is a school established at York. The settlers are principally of the Wesleyan persuasion, and have successfully set their faces against the establishment of any house of public entertainment, on the ground of the habits of excessive and injurious drinking which are apt to be fostered, when such an accommodation is at hand.

The village of Richmond is situated upon the river Illovo, and is about twenty-four miles from Maritzburg. It is the seat of a magistracy. The village itself contains a school house and an Episcopalian church, which were both built by public subscription. There are between two and three hundred white inhabitants, living in small farms scattered about among the hills. The country consists of fine rolling undulations which make excellent pasture grounds, and is exceedingly healthy. There are stores and two or three tradesmen within the precincts of the village.

Richmond was originally settled by individuals who were brought out in connection with Mr. Byrne's emigration scheme, and who for the most part, had little more on their arrival than their allotments of land and their industry. The settlers, as a rule, had very little knowledge of agricultural matters, and none whatever of the character of the country and climate they had selected for their future homes. Nevertheless, there are at the present time in this village, persons who have overcome these difficulties in such a way, that they are now in very prosperous circumstances. The following interesting and noteworthy instances of successful issue to struggle at the outset by residents in this locality, are given upon the authority of a gentleman, well known as a witness to be entirely trusted. This gentleman states that he is acquainted with one individual who landed in Natal with a wife and three little boys, and without any money. The only gratuitous aid he had received

was two barrels of flour from the Duke of Buccleugh. At the end of five years, he was the owner of upwards of forty head of cattle, including a span of *trek* oxen, and also of a cart and a saddle horse. Another person who had some experience in farming, had £50 in hand when he arrived upon his allotment. After five years he was the possessor of a pretty and commodious stone cottage, a stable and cattle kraal, forty head of cattle, and a saddle horse, and had five acres of land inclosed and under cultivation. A third settler, a stone-mason, had £15 in his pocket when he reached the parish, and is now the owner of a stone cottage, a good substantial water-mill, a saddle-horse, a waggon and twelve *trek* oxen, and a small herd of milch cows. Another individual, who had been a tradesman, was wrecked in the *Minerva*, on arriving at the Bay, and lost all he possessed. He was himself in delicate health, and he reached the land with a wife and five small children, and without any money. He has now a cottage and garden of his own, forty-six head of cattle, and five acres of land under the plough. A carpenter, who was also wrecked in the *Minerva*, and lost everything, now has a waggon, two spans of *trek* oxen, a large herd of cattle, and several horses; and he has lately purchased a bush-farm for a considerable sum of money. Another person came to Richmond with a very small sum of money, built a water-mill and worked it for a little time, then let his mill for a yearly rental of £50, and purchased a six-thousand acre farm, on which he now lives in a good stone house, with a cattle kraal and offices; he has upon his farm a cart, a span of oxen, nearly 500 sheep, and a herd of milch cows. A shoemaker, who had a very little money when he took possession of his farm, made £105 in his second year, and has since built a good stone house; he now possesses thirty *trek* oxen, fifty head of cattle, and four horses. All these instances are within the personal knowledge of the responsible informant.

There are a few white settlers in the upper part of the county of Maritzburg, around the sources of the Umgeni, who are farming with a marked degree of success, the district proving alike fertile and healthy. At present their neighbourhood is subjected to one drawback. They are open to the occasional

incursions of predatory Bushmen, who lurk in the adjacent fastnesses of the mountains, and make raids upon the outlying farms, driving off whatever cattle they can lay their hands on. This, however, is an evil which cannot be of long duration. The colonial government is at the present time considering what measures can be taken to put an end to these unwelcome visits, and some of the Kafirs of the colony have already been placed as a sort of barrier between these outlying settlements and the mountains.

The white population of the county of Maritzburg, inclusive of the city, at the present time numbers 3399 individuals; and the black population, including the district of the Upper Unkomanzi, is 50,670. There were 1860 Kafirs in service during the past year. 21,524 acres are now under cultivation; 6587 with Indian corn; 4991 with oats; 1067 with Kafir corn; 266 with wheat; 845 with potatoes; 90 with other kinds of vegetables; and 2 with sugar-cane. The principal produce of the last year was 35,089 muids of oats; 38,481 muids of Indian corn; 1122 muids of wheat; 7130 muids of potatoes; 538 muids of sweet potatoes; 390 muids of buck wheat; 67 muids of beans; and 33 muids of barley. There are in the county 4,666 head of cattle; 32,406 sheep; 2389 horses; and 6434 goats.

The county of Maritzburg contains very nearly two millions of acres of land. It is very open, and has comparatively little bush. Its soil is in many places fertile, lying upon a subsoil of either trap, shale, or sandstone. The idea is now generally gaining ground, that tropical produce may be advantageously reared in some of its most favoured localities. Mr. Baynes produced a fine crop of arrow-root last year in the immediate neighbourhood of the city. The sugar-cane has also been matured in some sheltered flats, thirteen miles eastwards of the same spot. The scenery in many parts of the county is remarkably beautiful. There are two very striking waterfalls a few miles to the north of Maritzburg, one on the Kar Kloof River, and the other on the Umgeni. The Umgeni makes a clear leap of some 300 feet at one bound. Immediately beneath the shoulder of the Zwartkop, and within a short ride of the town, there are two other falls of great picturesqueness, both on the Little

Bushman's ("Umsindusi"), or Maritzburg River. In the one case, the river makes a double-leap of about 80 feet into a wooded ravine; in the other case, it falls in a sheet over an open ledge. Near to these waterfalls is a very interesting place, the Edendale mission station, presided over by Mr. Allison. Some years ago, Mr. Allison brought with him a number of Kafirs belonging to the Amaswazi tribe, into the colony, and settled in this place. He has taught the men various handicrafts, and these men by the labour of their own hands have saved money enough to buy little plots of ground, and the huts in which they dwell. The settlement wears the general aspect of a rustic village. The entire estate has now been paid for by the labour of the Kafirs, the cost having been £1200. There are 600 individuals in the remarkable little community, of whom 120 are independent proprietors of tenements and land. The children are taught English, as well as industrial trades. The success of Mr. Allison's scheme has, no doubt, been in some measure due to Maritzburg being near enough to his settlement to afford a market for produce, and a remunerative employment for handicraft labour. The settlement is also aided by the government.

Amid the green slopes between Maritzburg and the Tablemountain, six miles away from the town, but hidden from it by an intervening ridge, is the residence and missionary station of the Lord Bishop of Natal. In this institution another experiment as to the capacity of the Kafir race is in progress. The Bishop has here a school of forty boys, most of them the sons of chiefs or head men, who have been placed under his care by their parents for five years. The boys are learning to read and write, both in their own tongue, and in English, and show a surprising aptitude for high-class culture. Three of them have already been taught to perform compositor's work and to print. Two are engaged in acquiring the art of the book-binder, and two others are engaged in bricklayer's work. The Bishop has also a few native girls under training; and near at hand the commencement of a native village, which it is intended should grow under his auspices. Among the boys in the Bishop's school, is the

youngest son of king Panda; the lad having been placed by the Lieutenant Governor under his Lordship's protection, when he came into British territory as a refugee at the time of the struggle between Ketchwago and the other sons of the king.

Tobacco has been successfully grown at Uys Doorns, six miles from Maritzburg, by Mr. Kinghurst. An acre of land yielded 2,000 lbs. of cured tobacco, which was sold for the average price of eightpence per lb. The expense of ploughing and planting was £2 10s., and the cost of curing £18. £66 13s. 4d. - £20 10s. = £46 3s. 4d., therefore gives the profit for one acre of land.

The Umvoti county, of which by far the larger portion belongs to the Midland district, is a trifle smaller than the central county of Maritzburg, and lies for some distance upon the bank of the Tugela, and there forms the boundary of the colony towards Zululand. It is principally inhabited by Dutch. There are, however, some English settlers in the division, and great attention is given to the rearing of stock throughout its farms. This county is considered to possess a remarkably rich and fertile soil; its climate is foggy and moist, and it is undoubtedly capable of supporting a large population. The number of its white inhabitants, is at the present time 671; and of its black population 16,751. Of these latter 448 have been in service in the course of the year. 1407 acres of land are under cultivation; of which 415 are in wheat; 253 in oats; and 170 in Indian corn. The produce of the county in the past year was 1083 muids of wheat; 1084 muids of oats; 478 muids of Indian corn; 199 muids of barley; 250 muids of sweet potatoes; 63 muids of common potatoes; and 59 muids of beans. There are in the county 6117 head of cattle; 8969 sheep; 2222 goats; and 963 horses.

There is but one so-called township in the Umvoti. This is known as Grey Town, and is a thriving little village. It possesses a store, a school house, and a Dutch-built stone laager, or place of defence, intended to receive the surrounding inhabitants and their waggons in case of need. It is the seat of the magistracy of the county. If the new route between the

northern passes of the Drakenberg and the Bay is formed, Grey Town will necessarily become a very important depôt of merchandize.

When the high waggon-road from Durban has undulated for some miles among the inequalities of the pastoral midlands, it passes through a district which is covered with a stunted bush of thorny mimosa trees, and which was originally the settlement of the Dutch clan of Uys, whence it is still designated Uys Doorns (*"Uys' Thorn"*), and it then ascends a long gently inclined slope. From the summit of this elevation a broad shallow valley suddenly breaks in front upon the view, backed by an amphitheatre of bold green hills. At the base of these hills, and about six miles away, there is a long line of white and red dots, set in a rich environment of foliage. The road is visible in front, winding along towards this spot. It passes over a bridge, and is then lost among the trees. The dotted line at the foot of the hills in this valley-landscape, is the city of Maritzburg.

The seat of the government of Natal is very beautifully placed. The city itself stands upon a broad sloping plain, which runs with a gentle gradient down from the south-west towards the north-east. Immediately towards the north-west, the plain is walled by a ridge of lofty green hills, known as the Town hills, and mounting up some 1200 feet above the plain. Low spurs project from this wall westwards and eastwards, until the city plain is converted into a kind of recess notched into the high ground. Towards the south-east there is open undulating land, with the Little Bushman's river running through it, parallel with the borders of the town, and about a quarter of a mile away. The hilly back-ground is over-topped towards the west by the truncated and tree-capped cone of the Zwartkop (*"black head"*) mountain, some seven or eight miles away. Towards the east the landscape is closed by a conspicuous grey wall. That is the Table-mountain, fifteen miles away. In the bright evening, when the sun goes down behind the back-ground of the "Town hills," and the sky above is a bright glow of soft light, the varied details of the broken ground are thrown forward by the changing hues; the Zwartkop grows into gigantic proportions

in the deepening shadows, and the basement ridges and ravines of the Table-mountain rise into red distinctness in the last touches of the sunshine yet lingering upon them. In the cloudless winter sunsets, Maritzburg is seen to stand in a spot of unquestionable beauty.

In general form Maritzburg still remains what it was when it was first laid out by its Dutch founders. It consists of eight parallel thoroughfares about 180 yards asunder, which all run along the sloping plain, and look up to an elevated saddleback, a quarter of a mile away, towards the south-west. This saddleback is crowned by the military camp of Fort Napier, a kind of barrack imperfectly defended by an earth rampart. This camp entirely commands the town. At the centre of the higher end, and facing the camp, stands the Government house. The eight parallel thoroughfares are connected with each other, here and there, by cross roads. The entire length of this regular quadrangle is about a mile and a half, and the breadth something less than a mile.

When the town was first traced out, the quadrangular idea was carried even further than its public thoroughfares. The spaces lying between the parallel roads were sliced up by fences, real or imaginary, into distinct four-cornered lots of nearly two acres in extent, which were termed *erven*. Each erf of land thus abutted upon two roads. By what seems to the present English occupiers of the city an odd whim, the blocks of *erven*, instead of the public thoroughfares, were termed "streets." Each erf was the allotment intended for the reception of a single residence, which was pitched in almost every instance by the first builders close upon one of the roads or thoroughfares. As the town has been becoming more populous, many of the *erven* have been subdivided across the middle and in a line parallel with the main thoroughfares, and houses have appeared at each end, so that now A lives in Loop street, and B in Burger street, and yet A's front door is just opposite to B's front door, with only a few feet of dusty road between. The names still retained by the greater number of the lines, or long blocks of *erven*, express at once the Dutch origin of the town. They are known as the Burger (*Citizen*) street, Loop (*Walk*) street,

Langmarkt (*Long-market*) street, Pieter Maritz street, Baum (*Tree*) street, Burg (*Borough*) street, and Greyling's street. One only has made a marked change in its name, having become "Church street," in the place of "*Kirk straat*."

In the central parts of the town the erven have been so divided again and again, as the land has been growing in value, that stores and houses have crowded in upon each other until their corners nearly or entirely touch. But throughout the greater part of the broad spaces the houses still stand alone, isolated in their original allotments, and in many cases surrounded by gardens and trees. Even in the most thickly peopled parts, the interior of the blocks yet remains open ground. On these accounts the city presents, on a bird's-eye-view being taken from the heights above, more the aspect of a large garden besprinkled with residences, than that of a town furnished with gardens. It will be at once understood that it must be so, when it is remembered that in the so-called city of Maritzburg, a population of about fifteen hundred is sown pretty evenly and broad-cast over a large area of nearly two square miles.

A considerable proportion of the houses in Maritzburg are structures of a single story ; many were built by the Dutch, and these are at once recognized by the long raised platform (*stoep*) which ranges in front of them, and by the stiff formality of the regular rows of tall windows equally balanced on either side of the central door. These houses have generally lofty rooms with ceilings of planked wood. Some of the residences are thatched bungalows, with shady and cool verandahs running entirely round. Some few are doing their best to look as if they belonged to some suburb of London. Many of the stores are both commodious and substantial. Indeed, business is for the present better lodged than either laziness or pleasure, in Maritzburg. The greater part of the private dwelling-houses are slimly built and inconveniently small for persons who come to them with English notions and habits. Every succeeding year, however, presents unmistakeable instances of amendment in this particular. Indeed, when one recalls to mind that the not-easily-to-be-counted structures which now stand everywhere over the two square miles of land, were nineteen short years ago represented

by *six little dwellings*, and nothing more, surprise is felt at the abundance, and not at the lack, of accommodation furnished for civilized cravings. The real reason for the smallness of the dwellings first built in the town, is the great cost of both material and skilled labour. Where carpenters' and bricklayers' wages are from six to eight shillings a day, and lime costs some shillings per bushel, it is not wonderful that men become economical in the span of roofs and walls. Fairly comfortable dwelling-houses may be hired in Maritzburg, for about three pounds per month. A complete erf of land in the town is now worth from £80 to £100.

Along one or both sides of the streets of Maritzburg open water-courses have been cut, which are flooded with running water all day long. These "sluits" ("*sloots-ditches*") are the almost exclusive sources of water-supply to the town. The water is furnished from one of the tributaries of the Bushman's River, some little distance above the town, and returns to the main channel of the stream below, when it has accomplished its beneficent work of yielding the civic supply. Even the summit of the Camp-hill is abundantly supplied with running water. The sluits are kept in order by the municipal authorities, and a small yearly rate is levied upon the inhabitants for this and other services. The water is very excellent. During the busy hours of the day it becomes somewhat turbid, notwithstanding municipal interdictions and rules, in consequence of the temptation which the perpetual wash-tub always running past all doors presents. If, however, the water intended for domestic use through the day be drawn at either an early hour in the morning, or at a late one in the evening, and be passed through a filter before it is employed, it makes an altogether unexceptionable beverage. The never-failing and never-stinted supply of excellent water is unquestionably one of the great luxuries of residence in Maritzburg.

A large open space of unoccupied blocks has been reserved between two of the main streets, near the centre of the town, to serve as a market square. The market consists of waggons laden with produce from the rural districts. The clerk of the market gives notice of the arrival of saleable articles by the

ringing of a bell. The oxen are outspanned and allowed to feed upon the surrounding grass, and the waggons remain standing on the spot until the oxen are again inspanned for return. Dutch farmers may sometimes be seen encamped near their waggons under canvass in this square, the iron pot boiling upon a wood fire on the open ground. In continuation with the Market-square, another open space is also reserved as a site for the Government-offices of some future day. This site now has a stone Gothic building, used as a native chapel, and belonging to the Church of England, on one side, and on the other side the prim square-towered church of the Scotch Presbyterians. At the further end of the Market-square a handsome new building is in process of erection for the Dutch Reformed Church, to take the place of the one first used. The Episcopal Church has two neat stone buildings in the town; in Church-street the cathedral and parish church of St. Peter's, a lofty, turretless, gothic structure, with a steep pitched slate roof; and in Pieter Maritz street, the small church of St. Andrew's. The Wesleyans have three chapels, all near to the cathedral, one of them a large red-brick building with a columned portico. There is a small chapel belonging to the Congregationalists in the town; and the Roman Catholics have also a chapel and college, and a residence for a bishop.

The public buildings, which are for the present merely rented tenements, stand scattered in the streets inclosing the Market-square. There are in this position the government offices, the court house, a magistrate's office, a gaol, and a post-office. There is a government school-room in another portion of the town, which serves also to accommodate the legislative council during its session. A commodious and handsome red-brick building is growing under the trowel for the future home of the Natal bank. The approach to the town from the Durban road, passes over the Little Bushman's river (*Umsindusi*), at a spot where a cast-iron bridge, upon the radiating rod suspension-principle, is just in the process of being erected at a cost of above two thousand pounds. Near to this bridge stands a red-brick flour-mill worked by the stream. By the side of the road, which connects the

bridge with the town, and which is *appropriately* termed the "Commercial Road," seeing that for the present all the merchandize which is transmitted between the interior of the country and the Port rolls along it, are the cemeteries of the various religious denominations, and also a large stone hospital erected by means of a grant made by the Home Government through the Imperial Commissioner, Sir George Grey, and thence bearing his name. The streets of the city are wide, and in many places edged by trees. The roads get speedily covered by grass along the sides, and in the least frequented thoroughfares; but this growth is periodically cleared away by the municipal authorities. In the dry season the streets are covered by a thickish layer of red dust, which causes some little annoyance in windy weather. In summer, the walking lies mainly through a very tenacious mud. This is one of the small troubles of the town. By degrees, no doubt, devices will be found for the removal of much of the inconvenience. Already one water-cart has made its appearance for the winter-service. The trees of Maritzburg are chiefly seringas (*a kind of lilac*), weeping willows, and blue gums. In the gardens, pomegranates, peaches, oranges, lemons, guavas, quinces, figs, loquats, bananas, and bamboos, appear very abundantly, and the rose is used everywhere as a hedge, and blossoms all the year round. A single tree in one garden in Maritzburg ripened last season, not less than fifteen muids of oranges.

Fort Napier, which stands on the elevation at the south-west extremity of the town, is a loop-holed quadrangle of brick, bastioned at opposite corners, and mounted with three or four large guns, which command the buildings and streets lying beneath. This military camp is at the present time the headquarters of the 85th regiment of Light Infantry, and the station of a detachment of the Cape Mounted Rifles, and of a company of the Royal Artillery. Maritzburg is also the headquarters of a gentleman Volunteer Corps, called the "Natal Carbineers," of which one company is located at Richmond. A Voluntary Rifle Corps is also in process of formation, under the colonial Secretary, the Hon. Major Erskine.

The white population of the city of Maritzburg, at the present time, exclusive of the royal troops in barrack, consists of about 1500 individuals. The municipal affairs are regulated by a mayor and seven counsellors, and the city returns two members to sit in the Legislative Assembly of the colony.

CHAPTER VIII.

THE NATURAL PRODUCTS OF NATAL.

THE soil in Natal is nearly everywhere covered by grass constituting a natural pasture. This grass is of a finer character in the uplands, and more rank on the warmer and moister lands near the sea. In the richer spots, and in places where the kraals of natives have been, a large coarse kind, almost amounting in size to the English reed, grows in great luxuriance. This particular species is known under the name of the Tambookie grass, and is the great resource of the thatcher. It possesses a fragrant smell, when rubbed, like that of the bitter orange, and is very valuable and enduring when applied to the purpose of roofing buildings.

Soon after the pastures have been cleared of their old parched growth by burning, young and tender grass begins to make its appearance on the blackened ground. Then bulbous plants, in infinite variety, send up their opening tufts of leaves, flower-stalks rise in the midst of the tufts, and in a few more days these stalks are crowned with clusters of bright-hued blossoms. In the midwinter and early spring, the pastures are literally sprinkled with beautiful flowers, most of them belonging to the narrow-leaved endogenous tribes, allied to the amaryllids, and true lilies. One of these amaryllids, a species of *cyrtanthus*, is known to the Dutch under the name of the "fire-lily," on account of the gorgeous flame-colour of its clustered blossoms, which hang down from the top of the otherwise bare peduncles, not unlike at first glance to bunches of the large-flowered scarlet fuchsia. Moist places are commonly covered with another very beautiful amaryllid (*amaryllis belladonna*) which is termed *par excellence* the "Natal Lily." The

flowers of this striking plant are large white pink-ribbed bells, hanging in enormous bunches round the summit of the flower-stalk, which rises to a height of three or four feet from the ground. The aloe grows in abundance among these amaryllids. In midwinter its spikes of orange and red florets are thrust up from the centre of its *chevaux de frise* of barbed and serrated leaves. The allied family of the irids is represented by very beautiful species of the gladiolus, and by several varieties of a very graceful form of ixia, which are almost unparalleled for elegance in any of the floral ranks. The flowers of these ixias are pink and lavender-hued bells, suspended from long pendulous hair-like foot-stalks, something like those of the English harebell. The flower-stems are sometimes six and seven feet high. The bright blossoms issue from dry membranous sheaths, or bracts, which remain after the flowers have withered. Before the buds open out, the spikes of grey scaly bracts look exactly like the fructification of a grass; and when the gay corollas appear, it is as if some of the slender, pendulous wood-grasses of home had suddenly burst into gay flowers at the end of their spikes. The ixias are not uncommonly termed "flowering grasses," by observers not initiated in the secrets of botanical lore. The bulbous amaryllids, and their near allies of the lily, iris, and onion tribes, seem as if they had seized upon South Africa as the head-quarters of their clan; they are found upon its hill-sides and slopes in so rich an abundance, and in so great a diversity. The amaryllids themselves are the most numerous of these gay bulbous plants. Nearly all the "lilies" of common language are really amaryllids. They are so called because the general aspect of the flower is lily-like. The corolla is large, bell-shaped, and furnished with six stamens. In the true lily, however, the young fruit is concealed within the flower; while in the amaryllid the young fruit is visible to the eye at the bottom of the gay flower. This is a somewhat important distinction, because the amaryllids all possess poisonous qualities, from which the lilies are altogether free. The poison used by some of the South African tribes to render their arrows deadly, is taken from a species of amaryllis. It is a piece of botanical knowledge by no means unimportant for the settler in South

Africa to possess, that any of the numerous succulent bulbous plants of the district, which has six stamened bell-shaped flowers, growing from the top of the young fruit, is at once to be set down as of dangerous and poisonous character.

Most of the trees in Natal bear gay and bright flowers ; and most of them are also evergreens. The bush of the sea-coast-district is a thick jungle of glossy-leaved trees, not much exceeding the dimensions of large shrubs, but gay with bright blossoms throughout the greater part of the year. Many of these bush-evergreens are leguminous plants, and have bunches of papilionaceous (*butterfly-like*) flowers. One of these pod-bearing trees, of common occurrence throughout the colony, is literally covered with thick masses of scarlet blossoms about midwinter, the leaf-buds only opening as the flowers fall away. This scarlet-blossomed ornament of the midwinter landscape (*an erythrina*) is known under the name of the "Kafir boom."

The bush of the uplands is principally composed of different species of mimosas. They are for the most part trees of limited size, with flat tops, and many of them are armed with formidable spines. The larger trees grow only in kloofs and ravines, seizing by preference upon the sides which have a southern exposure, and which therefore are sheltered from the mid-day sun. Many of these larger trees are of the laurel, the yew, and the myrtle tribes.

Several of the trees of Natal furnish excellent timber. First and foremost among these useful plants stands the tree which yields the "yellow wood." This is a species of yew (*Taxus elongata*), and bearing a leaf something like that of the English yew, but that it is longer. The yellow wood is the timber most generally in use within the colony for building purposes wherever there is protection from wet, and for the construction of household furniture. This wood has a very compact appearance, and works easily and well while still moist ; but when dry it cuts jaggedly and unevenly across the grain. The wood is of short fibre, and of slight tenacity. If painted or varnished with the sap still in it, it very soon decays. It shrinks more than any other wood in use ; beams made of it shorten themselves as much as half an inch in twenty feet. The wood is altogether

unfitted for out-of-door work. The yellow-wood trees are procured chiefly from the kloofs of the upland country. They grow to a large size. Trees forty feet long and five feet in diameter have been cut down as clean poles without a single branch. Where the branches are given out from the top of the stem, the wood is knotted and twisted so that it cuts there into very ornamental planks for cabinet work.

There is a second and distinct kind of yellow wood, known as the "Bastard-yellow wood," which is the produce of a tree with smaller leaves, borne chiefly in terminal tufts at the end of the branches, the naked stem being hoary from an investment of shaggy lichen. The bastard wood is stronger, when thoroughly dried, than the true yellow wood; but some specimens are very much better in this respect than others.

The wood known in the colony as sneeze-wood, is also the produce of an evergreen which grows to large size. Trunks have been cut down eighty feet high, and four feet in diameter; but the largest and oldest trees are generally unsound at the heart. The wood has received its name from the Dutch, because it gives off an irritating dust when it is worked, which excites to sneezing. In general appearance, it very much resembles satin-wood. But notwithstanding its delicate and handsome grain, it is not suited to cabinet-makers' work, on account of the large quantity of resin which it contains. Joints made with it will not hold glue, unless carefully chalked beforehand. Planks of it often fall into little holes after planing, from the opening of many of the minute reservoirs provided within the substance of the wood for the reception of the resin. The cause, however, which unfits this wood to be employed by cabinet-makers, renders it valuable for out-of-door service in the same degree. It bears wetting with comparative impunity. Instances are known in which posts of sneeze-wood have been taken out of the ground perfectly sound, although they could not have been in use for less than sixty years. A block of sneeze-wood flames like a candle when it is burned. Trees of it will continue to blaze in the bush for two and three weeks at a time when set on fire. Sneeze-wood enjoys a tolerable immunity from the attacks of

insects. The wood is particularly straight-grained, and has a long tenacious fibre; it is considerably stronger than yellow wood, but readily splits, and is therefore well adapted for making laths.

The stink-wood of the colony is the produce of a species of laurel (*the Laurus bullata*). This wood has a longer fibre than sneeze-wood, and possesses greater tenacity. When it breaks, it presents a more stringy fracture. It is, however, not so hard as sneeze-wood, and is of very inferior durability to it, when used in exposed situations. It is well adapted for making furniture. Stink-wood receives its name from the peculiar odour which it emits when under the saw and plane. The wood is dark, something like the most ornamental specimens of the walnut, and often variegated with great diversity of shades; choice specimens of it have almost the beauty of tortoiseshell. The markings, however, are very evanescent, unless the wood is protected from the influence of the air, by a covering of resinous polish. The stink-wood tree grows in the uplands, at the very top of ravines and kloofs, where it is difficult to get at. It is in extensive use for the rims of wheels. There is a variety of this wood, known under the name of the "Cannibal Stink-wood," which is of a light colour, woolly and porous; the surface, when it is cut with the saw, presents a texture very much like the nap of cloth. This wood is of no use whatever to the cabinet-maker, and is chiefly employed in the fabrication of yokes.

The iron-woods of Natal are very long fibred, tough and wiry. The grain is so close that it can scarcely be detected by the eye; but it is arranged in knotty and curly bundles. There are two kinds of the wood; the one being light, and the other nearly black. The white wood is sometimes cut in blocks twenty-five feet long, and eighteen inches in diameter. The black wood is more commonly unsound at the heart when the tree is of any size. With one exception the iron-woods are the strongest of any kind of timber that grows in Natal. They are in great request for the axles of waggons; and are also used for forming coggod wheels. They are excellent for the purposes of the turner. The dark wood would be of great value in England for church furniture and carving.

The hardest and toughest of the woods of Natal is that known under the native name "*Umsimbiti*" (*iron-wood*). The tree which yields this wood grows principally upon the coast and bears a sort of pod; it is sometimes procured as much as eighteen inches in diameter. It is particularly dense and heavy, and is preferred before everything else for the construction of axles for waggons. The axle, however, has to be cut in a particular form, because the wood has a tendency to bend up when it has been in work for some time. Axles of the *umsimbiti* are very enduring, and will stand continued wear for ten or twelve years at a stretch. The natives make tall, knobbed walking-staffs of this wood, some of which are twelve or fourteen feet long and perfectly straight from end to end.

There are several other kinds of wood furnished by the trees of Natal which are used for various purposes, but are less generally known than those which have been particularized. A strong wood called the "*White-pear wood*" is straighter in its fibre than even stink-wood, and furnishes a valuable material for the rims of wheels. The spokes of wheels are for the most part formed of a kind of lance-wood, termed "*Assegai wood*" because the Kafirs use it for the handles of their spears; this wood is very compact and hard, but grows to no size. There is a very valuable wood procured from the bush of the sea-coast, which is termed the "*Flat-crown wood*." The tree grows with a clean stem fifteen feet high, and some two feet in diameter. The fibre of the wood is very much like that of elm, but its colour is a brighter yellow than even the true yellow wood, and it cuts with a firm and even grain. It is chiefly employed for constructing the naves of wheels. There are two woods known on the coast as "*Red-and-white milk woods*," which are procured of considerable size, and which are put to the same uses as stink-wood; even axles of waggons being made of them. A compact and close "*Red-ivory wood*" is procured from the banks of the Umgeni. There is also a wood known under the name "*Chestnut-wood*;" the tree bearing a seed like that of the horse-chestnut. A dark brown, very hard wood, distinguished by the Kafirs as "*Tamboti-wood*," and used by them, when scraped, as a dressing for the hair, is employed in the construction of axles, and for

the stocks of guns; it is cross-grained and hard to clean off after it has been cut, in consequence of being charged with gum. A wood known among the Dutch as the "Saffran (*saffron*) wood" is the produce of a tree something like the laurel, but having the leaf prickly on its edge. This wood is of great toughness and strength, and yields a bark which is employed for tanning. There is also another useful wood found in the bush which is designated the "Bitter-almond wood;" and yet another kind designated "Rooi bessje" (*red berry*), very much resembling Honduras mahogany.

A few of the wild plants of Natal bear edible fruits; but it must be confessed that the native fruits are curiously few for a spot so rich in the productions of the vegetable kingdom. It is also somewhat worthy of remark that the two wild fruits, which are perhaps in most general use, are furnished by poisonous tribes. The "*Amatungulu*" (*Natal plum*) is the berry of an evergreen periwinkle (*Vinca*) growing as a small shrub on the sea-coast lands. The fruit is about the size of a damson, and is filled with a milky white, pleasantly acid juice; and it becomes of a bright red colour as it ripens. The Cape gooseberry, a plant which should perhaps be rather considered as naturalized from the Cape, than as truly indigenous to the colony, is the capsule of a broad-leaved straggling plant of the deadly-night-shade family (*Solanaceæ*). This plant grows very luxuriantly on waste land around dwellings, and is very constantly and extensively used by colonists; but its fruit has a peculiar coarse flavour which is not always relished at the first. The kaw apple (*Dingaan's apricot*) is the fruit of an ebony tree (*Diospyrus*), which constitutes a very valuable thick-set fence, when properly planted, impenetrable by cattle. The fruit forms an extemporaneous pickle, and when ripe is capable of yielding in skilful hands a preserve, which forms a very excellent substitute for the currant-jelly of home, and quite an epicure's addition to colonial mutton and venison. The granadilla (*a species of passion-flower*) is now quite naturalized in the colony, and grows with surprising luxuriance. Its fruit, when ripe, is perhaps on the whole one of the most delicious and wholesome of the productions of the colony. The pulp and seeds scooped out from the cavity

of the capsule, present a remarkable combination of pleasant acidity with exquisite aroma. The fruit of the prickly-pear, a spiny cactus of rapid growth, which is also employed for fencing, is eaten by many. A species of banana (*Strelitzia alba*) and a species of fig, grow wild in the colony. A very excellent kind of wild raspberry is also found. The Kafirs are acquainted with another kind of plum, somewhat resembling the amatungulu, but having a real stone in its inside; this is called the "*Amatunduluka*." They also eat the fruit of the water-boom of the Dutch (*a species of mimosa*) under the name of "Izindoni." The wild fig (*Umkivane*) of the natives is a small fruit which hangs in bunches on a long string. The fruit of a wild olive (*Umqwenya*), a shrub armed with innumerable thorns that hook the foliage together into a dense tangled mass, is another indigenous production which is consumed by the wild tribes.

The three great leafless and succulent-stemmed tribes of the vegetable kingdom are all abundantly represented in Natal. The euphorbias occur in every possible variety of size, from weeds the length of the finger to trees forty feet high. The large euphorbia tree of the bush has already been alluded to as constituting a remarkable feature in the landscape of Natal. The true "Candelabra Spurge," aptly named from its grotesque mimicry of the old-fashioned branched candlestick, is encountered in rocky places near the margins of rivers. The prickly pears (*Cacti*) grow luxuriantly to a gigantic size. The Asclepiods are a numerous family, and put on an infinite diversity of form; that of the Stapelias, with their livid and disagreeable smelling flowers, among them. On some parts of the immediate sea-coast, complete walls are formed of magnificent aloes, standing ten or twelve feet high.

The "Kafir-orange" of the sea-coast-bush is a "strychnos," and has strychnine in its seeds. The castor-oil plant, the senna, and several species of indigo, are encountered wild in various localities in Natal.

Some portion of the four-footed tribes of the animal kingdom, which originally shared the colony of Natal with its native human inhabitants, have retired in dudgeon before the footsteps of the white-skinned colonists. But a few years ago, the mer-

chant of Durban who rode up into the bush of the Berea, stood a very fair chance of having to pull up mid-way in his canter, to allow a file of half a dozen elephants to pass across his path. The mimosa-bush around Uys Doorns, seven miles out of Maritzburg, on the Durban road, was a favourite haunt of these huge creatures, when the Dutch laid out the streets of Maritzburg. The elephant is still plentiful in the bush along the banks of the Tugela. During the two or three midwinter months, the monarch with the big mane crosses the Drakenberg into the Klip River county, and the upper districts of the colony, with the blesse buck, wilder-beest, quagga, and zebra, which then migrate so far in search of pasture. Upon very rare occasions indeed, the lion follows smaller game further towards the sea. It must be also stated that the lion of South Africa, is a well-fed good-natured creature, manifesting very different points of character from his Mauritanian relative. The panther is common throughout the colony, and is a very fierce and formidable beast. It crouches upon the branch of some tree and drops upon its prey, as this passes beneath. There is at the present time a panther skulking about in the Town bush, in the immediate neighbourhood of Maritzburg. The leopard is even more frequently encountered. It is a smaller animal than the panther, measuring eight or nine feet from the nose to the tip of the tail. The panther and leopard are called "*tigers*" among the Dutch. There are several varieties of tiger-cat in Natal, mostly about the size of a greyhound, and nearly resembling the chetah of India. There is also a small and beautiful species of wild cat. The hyena is found everywhere, and is exceedingly useful in taking upon itself some of the duties of the scavenger. It prowls about the slaughter-house of Maritzburg at night. It is a large, powerful, and very fierce animal, but of course does not meddle with living prey. It is the "*wolf*" of the Dutch. The jackal is also frequently met with. The wild dog of the colony is a large and very swift animal, and is able to run down the buck with the greatest ease. When the buck makes to a cover, the dog may be seen leaping, in the eagerness of the chase, many feet high above the foliage, looking for the game beneath. Three wild dogs will tear down and literally consume

a buck of 60 lbs. in a few minutes. There are two kinds of wild pig in the colony. The prairie pig is only found in the open veldt; it has an active body, to which is appended an ugly head of enormous dimensions. When hard pressed, it seeks shelter in the burrow of the jackal, and it is very ferocious when brought to bay. It has the habit of throwing itself backwards, as it issues from the burrow, and woe betide the sportsman who stands there under the idea of shooting it as it issues from its retreat. The prairie pig sometimes weighs as much as 80 lbs., and makes excellent pork. The bush pig is a much larger animal, and frequents only covered ground. It is very much like the European wild boar, and the boar sometimes weighs 180 lbs. The sea cow (*Hippopotamus*) is very abundant in certain localities. There is a kind of preserve of it within two hours' ride of Maritzburg. The porcupine is also constantly encountered. There is a great variety of the weasel-tribe in Natal, to meet the necessity of the equally great numbers of mice and rats which overrun the ground. The ants, the mice, and the rats would indeed have the whole South African land to themselves, if it were not for the enemies which nature has supplied to keep their hordes in check. The holes formed by the ant-bear are stumbled upon everywhere on the open pasture. The meer-cat and the mole are also seen very frequently. Monkeys and baboons inhabit the more retired parts of the thick bush, but are rarely caught sight of, excepting by travellers who find themselves in those thick retreats in the early morning. Troops of these four-handed gymnasts occasionally show themselves on the ledges and in the ravines of the Table-mountain near Maritzburg, about the falls of the Umgeni, in some parts of the bush near Durban, and, indeed, in almost every retired kloof. The buffalo may be still seen within a day's ride of Maritzburg. It is one of the most exciting, but also one of the most dangerous objects of the colonial chase. It is only found under the shelter of the dense thorn-bushes. It is the habit of the animal to stand in thick cover, with its head held low, so that it can see an approaching antagonist under the creepers, whilst it is itself in perfect concealment. It rushes forth all of a sudden, and strikes the

hunter who falls into its clutches with its horns. The tactics of the hunter consist in advancing, in all suspicious places, warily from tree to tree, and dodging the infuriated animal when it makes its rush, firing after it as its impetus carries it past the hunter's shelter.

The division of animal life which is most interesting to the colonist upon the whole is that which contains the antelopes. There are several different kinds of these still shot as venison, and all are technically known in colonial language as "*bucks*." The most common of the tribe is perhaps the "*oribi*." It is spread all over the colony. It is a red animal weighing about 30 lbs. It lives in the open prairies, excepting during the winter months, when it seeks shelter. It squats on the ground, and starts up from under the horse's feet. Its habit is very much that of the hare. It keeps very much to one locality, and runs in a circle. With the exception of one or two of the larger species, the males only of the antelopes are furnished with the sharp conical horns.

The *duiker buck* (diver) is a dark grey animal, somewhat smaller than the oribi. It lives entirely in cover, and has the habits of the rabbit rather than of the hare. When it is hunted, it is started from the cover, and killed in the open land. It also is widely spread over the colony.

The *riet buck* (reed buck) is a fawn-coloured animal with prominent eyes, which avoids dense foliage and underwood, but haunts swampy covers of reeds and high grass. It is a slow runner and a squatter, and only to be started at a near distance. Its weight varies from 80 lbs. to 100 lbs.

The *Rhē buck* is the chamois of South Africa. It is found on the Natal hills. It is a light grey animal, with a wavy coat. It is very wary and only to be killed by surprise. It places sentinels on high posts above the sleeping troop. It is chased by two hunters, the one of whom drives the animal upon the runs where the other is lying in wait.

The bush buck, or bush ram, is about the same size as the riet buck. It is a dark-brown spotted animal, with a mane running down its back, and lives always in cover. It shows fight when brought to bay, and is somewhat formidable from

the length and strength of its horns. It barks like a dog when rushing upon an antagonist.

There is also found in the bush a very choice little animal known as the *blue buck*, which is not very much larger than a good-sized hare.

The *hartebeest* is found in the winter season in the upland districts, within five hours' ride of Maritzburg. It is a magnificent animal, weighing sometimes 350 lbs. It does not squat, and must be cut off, when hunted, by a fair hard run. It lives entirely in the open pastures, and both the males and females carry horns.

The *eland* far exceeds even the hartebeest in size. It lives in the open pasture, and is soon run down on account of being generally encumbered with a considerable deposit of fat about the heart. A full-grown bull weighs as much as a thousand pounds, and falls with a crash, like that of a tumbling house, when it is shot. The eland comes over the Berg into the upland districts of Natal in the months of July and August.

Both the hartebeest and the eland (as well as the buffalo) are shot with ball. The rest of the antelopes are, for the most part, killed with large shot.

The hare is found in Natal, but it is far more rare than the more common kinds of buck. A kind of coney (*rock rabbit*) is common in many localities.

The blesse buck (an antelope with a white blaze down the body), the quagga (wild ass), the wilderbeest (gnu), and the zebra, are found under the Drakenberg, on the Natal side, during the three coldest months of the winter. They always have the lion with them.

The open veldt of Natal is abundantly stocked with pheasants, partridges, and quails. The pheasant is an ugly brown bird, marked by a white horse-shoe, and with a cry exactly like that of the English pheasant; it has white, but dry flesh. The grey-winged partridge is like the English bird; it is principally confined to the coast-lands. A red-winged partridge, as large again as the grey-winged, is found in most parts of the colony. The teal is occasionally met with in small numbers. The wild duck is rare. The Muscovy duck is more common. So also is

the wild goose, which is a very delicious bird on table. The paauw (wild turkey or bustard) is very abundant, and is one of the most esteemed species of game in the colony. The meat of the breast is brown and of a peculiar short fibre; the meat of the other parts is white; its flavour is intermediate between that of the pheasant and the wild duck, and nearly resembles that of the moor fowl of Scotland. It is shot in the open country by sportsmen riding in circles round it. The koran is a smaller bird, but of very excellent quality in the proper season; it is more like the English woodcock, and has half an inch of delicious fat upon its back. The guinea-fowl abounds in the bush. A species of snipe is very common on the open land. There is also "a golden snipe," which is ornamented with circular yellow and black spots. There are various kinds of storks, cranes, and pelicans, in Natal. There is one known as the locust bird, and another as the Kafir crane. One of the most interesting of the tribe is the secretary bird, which wages incessant and very successful warfare with the snakes.

The birds of prey are an extensive family in Natal, and have very important business entrusted to their care. A large black eagle is now and then seen. There are several kinds of falcons, kites, hawks, and owls. Some of the hawks are very small, and prey only on the insects (*insect-hawks*). There are two species of the vulture. One kind, a large, heavy, black-and-white bird, with fringed, flapping wings, is constantly seen winging its way through the higher regions of the air, intent upon some business-visit to carrion. The most common crow is a raven-like bird, with a curious carunculated and hooked beak, and a white crescent upon its back.

The birds of the bush are many of them of most beautiful plumage. Among the most striking may be named parrots, toucans, the lori, king-fishers, wood-peckers, the sugar-bird, the honey-bird, and a kind of canary. There is a very remarkable long-tailed finch, common in most localities, the male of which carries behind it a waving tail three times the length of its body. This is known as the Kafir-finch (*Kafir-vink*).

The reptiles of Natal are important items in its list of living creatures. Large alligators breed near the mouths of some of

the rivers, and upon rare occasions prove troublesome to passengers, who attempt to cross the drifts when the streams are unusually flooded. Their huge forms may now and then be seen basking upon the sandy shores of their favourite haunts. They readily take a poisoned bait, and are disposed of in this way whenever they begin to show in force in any locality. Snakes constitute a legion in the land, far too numerous to have been hitherto numbered and catalogued. They abound alike in the tangled bush, in the grassy pasture, and in the stony wilderness. The boa constrictor, and large species of python, haunt some of the tangled kloofs, but are altogether harmless to man. They principally affect the smaller antelopes, and creatures of yet more diminutive size. A fair illustration of the kind of relations which exist between these gigantic, but not poisonous serpents, and man, was afforded recently. Two young boys were crawling about among some tall reeds near the river Umhlanga, when one of them came within a few inches of the head of a large boa. The boys retreated a few yards, and began pelting the monster with stones, and he took himself off quietly out of sight. Many of the smaller snakes are venomous. Among these the most formidable are some species of cobra, the puff adder, and two or three kinds of a snake much dreaded by the Kafirs, under the name of imamba. This serpent is slender for its length, and of a dark brown colour, and is chiefly formidable on account of its quick movements, and bellicose habits. The imamba is probably the only serpent which voluntarily acts on the offensive against man. Snakes are for the most part sluggish and timid, and manifest no other anxiety when they are disturbed than to get out of the way. An incessant warfare is of course continually waged against them; thousands are destroyed in the colony every year. They are immediately rendered powerless for harm by a smart blow across the spine, inflicted by a stout *pliable* stick, or heavy thong. When the number of the poisonous snakes in Natal is borne in mind, it is truly wonderful how rarely injuries are inflicted by their bites. Colonists very soon get to be perfectly indifferent to their presence. A tradesman's wife, in Maritzburg, a few days since, sat down upon what she conceived to be an empty

box that chanced to be standing near the door of her cottage, and a few minutes afterwards made the discovery that the box contained a large puff adder, which had appropriated it before herself. She merely called a Kafir servant, and sent him away with the box and the adder, as coolly as if the event had been a matter of course in the occurrences of the day. The writer of these lines, after eighteen months' experience in a favourite haunt of the snakes, where he had frequent occasions to verify the fact of their near neighbourhood, only saw *one animal* which had been bitten, and that was a *trek* ox. The beast was enormously swollen from the effects of the bite, and pronounced by the Kafir attendants to be past hope. But it ultimately recovered under the use of ammonia.

The reptiles encountered in Natal are not all repulsive. Beautiful little lizards bask everywhere in the sunshine, and play bo-peep in the most familiar way with observers, and still more beautiful chameleons cling to the foliage of the trees. The Kafirs have some tradition regarding the chameleon, which confers upon the interesting little creature immunity from attack, a privilege which it seems quite to understand, as it is without any fear of the human form. The chameleon is a common household pet among the children of settlers. A large species of iguana, nearly a yard long, is found near the water.

The insect race, as a matter of course, musters strong in the South African sunshine. The tribes, however, which seem to claim for themselves most immediate notice, are those which belong to the fan-winged (*orthopterous*) division. A locust, two inches long, and wearing a gorgeous green, gold, and black coat-of-mail, feeds gluttonously under the trees. Grasshoppers leap from under the pedestrian's feet, and when well up in mid-air, expand a pair of bright scarlet wings, and lengthen their leap into a flight. The grotesque phasmidæ, or spectre-insects, lurk in the pathway like limbed and animated straws and twigs; and the green mantis lies in wait on the branches and trunks of trees, and with clasped and uplifted legs turns its queer goggle eyes upon the approaching intruder, and even waits curiously and patiently with waving horn-like antennæ

whilst its back is stroked. Big-thighed crickets complete this motley orthopterous (*fan-winged*) group, which as much deserves to be considered the representative type of the insect race of the colony, as the amaryllids do to be taken as a leading type of its vegetable tribes.

The butterflies of Natal are very varied and beautiful. At night, throughout the season of the summer, the darkness is spangled with the soft-glowing light of the fire-flies. The water-courses along the streets of Maritzburg are completely fringed with their dancing fires night after night. The cicadas keep the air filled with shrill grating discord, during pretty well eight months of the year. Solitary bees make tunnels in the walls of dwelling-houses, and long brown-and-gold wasps suspend their paper nests from the beams of verandahs and out-houses. The ground is alive with colonies of ants, some big shiny-black fellows, others rusty red, and others of pigmy size and brown. Scarcely a yard of bare ground can be discovered which is not occupied with the busy marchings and runnings to and fro of these active and energetic insects.

Insect life teems in Natal. But, strange to say, it is hardly possible to conceive any land on the globe where less annoyance is occasioned by its abundance. The ear must become used and insensible to the shrill chirp of the crickets and cicadas; spiders must be cleared away from ceilings and walls pretty constantly; and fleas must be hunted to extirpation now and then; but this is about the extent of trouble many colonists will experience from these reputed plagues. Flies are as obstinate and self-willed as they are in confectioners' shops in England. Mosquitoes are confined to limited localities. They are very sparingly seen in the neighbourhood of Maritzburg. The very wasps are well-behaved and polite. They never beset the dwelling apartments, and buzz impertinently about, as they do at home. A solitary one now and then sails quietly into the room, and after a minute survey of the rafters and ceilings, with a mere view to business, sails as soberly out again. The insect plagues of Natal, apart from the special depredators which attack the crops of the agriculturists, and which are of course as numerous and as diversified as in other parts of the world,

may be named in a very small compass. They are simply ticks, ants, and fish moths.

There are several kinds of the insect known under the name of the tick (*ixodes*) found in Natal. The larger species confine their attention to oxen and horses. These are often as large as, or larger than, a pea. Those which attack man are very much smaller. The most troublesome of all is so small, that it can be barely seen. These insects are shaped something like a bug. They have no wings, and cling to the stalks of the grass, from which they are brushed by passing animals. They possess, in the place of mouths, a pair of sharp delicate lancets, and a pipe covered over externally with small curved-back spikes. They plunge this implement into the skin, and then suck away, holding on unconsciously, and therefore very resolutely, by their barbs. They are destitute of eyes, and hence it may be hoped are not altogether conscious of their evil deeds. The ticks are very troublesome to animals, especially in the sea-coast district. They also occasionally cause an inconvenient amount of irritation in the human skin. This much, however, must be said even for these blind, blood-thirsty insects; their reality is not so bad as their reputation. Their numbers are kept very much under by the custom of burning the grass on the pastures; and they gradually disappear from well-cultivated land. It is said that they were once very much more troublesome in the sandy precincts of Durban, than they are at the present time.

The "white ant" is properly not an *ant* at all. It is an insect holding an intermediate position between the orthopterous tribes already alluded to, and the true, or hymenopterous, ants. The little white workers which constitute the labouring part of the community, are the immature forms (*larvæ*) of the insect. The soldiers, recognized by their larger heads and mandibles, are in more mature states; but these soldiers never put on wings. The winged members of the community are individuals which have attained full perfection as males and females; these fly off from the nest as soon as their development is complete, to establish fresh colonies. Such of the females of these insect emigrants as escape the numerous dangers of their out-of-door excursion, are found up by scattered parties of workers, and imprisoned in

a cell of hardened clay as the centres of independent settlements. The white ants labour entirely out of sight in covered ways. They form galleries of hardened clay a short distance beneath the surface, which ramify in various directions from the royal cell or nest. These galleries are often carried beneath the foundations of houses, and then up through the interior of the wood-work; a mere thin surface-layer of which is alone left to mask their proceedings. The ants sometimes travel from the floor to the upper stories or the roof, through plastered walls. They then betray their course by making small openings here and there, through which they fling the waste materials of their excavations. These ingenious depredators are very abundant. Many of the buildings in the towns, the Court-house in Maritzburg for instance, have had the timber in them replaced again and again in consequence of their resolute attacks. Some of the rooms of the Grey Hospital in the same town have suffered in the same way from the energetic activity of their mandibles. There is but one method by which the white ants can be displaced from any building they have taken a fancy to. The ground in the neighbourhood must be thoroughly examined, and dug over, and the queens and their royal chambers destroyed. So soon as this is effected, the depredators give over their attack and disperse of their own accord. In all towns of any size, such as Maritzburg, they gradually withdraw themselves centrifugally. They never remain long in the neighbourhood of cultivated ground, or where their proceedings are subject to frequent disturbance.

The true ants now and then take the fancy into their little obstinate heads that they will send out their swarms of perfected males and females into, or through, the apartments of dwelling-houses. It is only under such exceptional circumstances that they cause any trouble. When they adopt this course, they cluster in enormous quantities about the skirting-boards and floors, and their winged swarms are scattered from these in unpleasant quantities during the evening and night. This process of swarming goes on pertinaciously for a few successive days, and then comes to an end, and the ants disappear. They can only be got rid of during the process by the external removal of

the nests and runs. All the ordinary in-door tactics, such as deluges of boiling water, and supplies of arsenic and sugar, fail; they merely shift the ground of the exodus by a few inches, and perhaps prolong the term of the eruption.

There is, however, one kind of true ant which belongs especially to the house, and which is especially the housekeeper's pest. This is a small brown species, or emmet, which makes its nest in walls and beneath floors, and which has an unconquerable liking for all sweet and fat articles of food. The first thing it does is to find out the pantry. Some stray foragers then discover where the good things are deposited, and a run is forthwith established; that is to say, a procession begins of insects passing to and from the discovered treasures in a wide track or train, in which every pair of mandibles going downwards or outwards is laden with a pilfered morsel. If the run be broken across, or disturbed, a detour is made round the difficult point, and the communications are established along another line. Complicated campaigns extending over weeks, may be fought in this way with the emmets, and be ended in their favour by their establishing themselves in possession of the disputed ground. The ingenious shifts and contrivances to which they resort in such contests would be quite incredible, if not observed. There is only one course of proceeding which proves to be too much for them. This consists in isolating every article that they affect by placing it upon shelves, or in safes and cupboards, standing upon legs thrust into little tin vessels of tar. All the shelves of a pantry may be easily isolated in this way, by having four legs three inches long at their corners placed in such tar receptacles standing on lower shelves. A house may be kept fairly clear of these ants by dressing all the crevices of the floors, first with tar, and then with Roman cement. The great practical rule for the housekeeper, in dealing with these invaders, is however never to allow anything which they have a fancy for, to stand unisolated by the tar-buckets. Under such treatment they soon vote the "grapes sour," and the house "a bore;" and leave it for forays in more productive directions.

There is a very destructive insect in Natal, known commonly as "The Fish Moth." This is a steel-grey fishy-looking creature

with six legs, without wings, and with diverging spikelets to its tail. It inhabits the crevices of walls, and wood-work, and is nocturnal in its habits, being greatly addicted to the insides of boxes which are not often disturbed, and more especially if lined, as instrument-cases are, with green baize. It is very fond of all fabrics containing starch, and attacks woollen clothes of all kinds, riddling them full of holes. Very considerably it prefers old clothes to new ones. The slimy-looking grey body is really covered with scales of microscopic minuteness. The troublesome creature is, indeed, a species of the *Lepisma*, which is in such high repute among the microscopists of England, on account of its furnishing them these minute scales as test-objects, adapted to try the optical excellence of their instruments. It is an insect which is destitute of wings, which undergoes no transformation, and which for these and other structural reasons is placed in the "*Thysanourous*," or *tassel-tailed*, wingless group of entomologists. The fish moths possess an incredible tenacity of life. The writer now has one of them, which was placed in a wine-glass three months ago to test its power of endurance, which has had no supply of food since, saving one companion that was at first the sharer of its captivity, and which is at the present time as lively as when the incarceration commenced. There is scarcely a house in Natal that is not over-run with these destructive fish moths. There is, however, a very easy method of protecting clothes from their depredations. It is simply to isolate all wardrobes and boxes that are used as depositories of garments not in constant use, from the floor and walls, by tar-buckets. It is one of Nature's beneficent compensations that the fish moth is devoid of wings.

The spiders of Natal are also a host which can hardly be numbered. Some of them are big, hairy, bold rascals, rather given to let themselves down from the thatch in unceiled rooms, at inconvenient and unseasonable times. They are of seemingly infinite diversity, and many are spotted, and of beautiful bright colours. The scorpion now and then turns up, but is very rarely seen.

It is a somewhat unpleasant fact that the "*Entozoa*" or intestinal worms, are common in Natal. Both the "tape worm"

and the "round worm" are of frequent occurrence. The reason for this is at present not known. In all probability the crude germs of the creature are derived from some extraneous source, and introduced into the digestive canal either with uncooked articles of food, or in the water. Various effectual remedies are in use in the colony. One of the most powerful of these is procured from the roots of the pomegranate, and the granadilla. The male fern is also employed medicinally by the Kafirs.

CHAPTER IX.

THE COMMERCIAL PROGRESS OF NATAL.

THE Commercial history of Natal, as a British dependency, may be considered to date from the year 1846. The settlement of the colony had at that time been so far carried out, that mercantile enterprize had commenced to flow into its proper channels. In the year 1840 the white population of Natal amounted to about 6000 individuals; but these were almost entirely Dutch. The Kafir population at that time was between twenty and thirty thousand. Before, or soon after, the final annexation of the territory by the English, at least two-thirds of the Dutch again crossed the Drakenberg. When Sir Harry Smith visited Natal, eleven years ago, the white population had been reduced to a very low ebb. There was nevertheless within the colony, at the end of the last year, a white population of nine thousand, of which probably the smaller half was Dutch. The Kafir population at that time was estimated at one hundred and thirty thousand.

In the year 1846, thirty vessels, averaging each 117 tons, came to Port Natal, bringing goods of the value of about £40,000. In 1849, forty ships, averaging 147 tons each, brought merchandise worth £56,000. In 1850, sixty-four ships, averaging 259 tons each, brought goods worth £111,000. This rapid increase was in some measure due to the reckless way in which merchants began to send manufactured and other goods into the new market. The overstocking of the market, and the failure of Byrne's emigration scheme, soon put a somewhat disastrous check to these proceedings. During the years 1851, 1852, 1853, and 1854, the value of the imports averaged for each year £110,000; but in the year 1855, twenty-seven ships, averaging

137 tons' burthen each, brought imports of the value of only £86,000. Since then the increase has been very steady. In 1856, forty-one ships of 122 tons each, brought imports to Natal worth £102,000. In 1857, forty ships of 202 tons each, brought imports worth £184,000. In 1858, forty-five ships of 245 tons each, brought imports worth £173,000.

It may be somewhat interesting to note the way in which young Natal chose to spend its pocket-money during the past year. Of the £173,000 paid for imported articles, the following was the *general* mode of distribution : for—

Articles of food	£30,000
Clothing	27,000
Strong drinks (nearly)	14,000
Agriculture and manufacture	12,000
Luxuries	11,025
Household hardware	10,000
Luxuries	8,000
Building materials	4,975
Saddlery	4,000
Books, paper, and printing materials (nearly)	4,000
Candles and soap	2,000
Drugs	2,000

The details of expenditure in the several classes, were—

FOOD.—Flour from the Cape, £8882 ; coffee, £6632 ; rice, £5183 ; tea, £2837 ; sugar, £2775 ; dried fruit, £1312 ; oats and wheat from the Cape, £944 ; salt, £749 ; confectionery, £376 ; pickled fish, £335 ; cheese, £323 ; spices, £196 ; vinegar, £122.

ARTICLES OF CLOTHING.—*Haberdashery and Millinery!* £14,153 ; woollen cloth and flannel, £3972 ; woollen blankets, £3165 ; sheets (15,000 pairs), £2019 ; cotton manufactures, £1639 ; hats, £1543 ; linen, £1445 ; hosiery, £1091.

STRONG DRINKS.—Ale and beer, £1621 ; brandy, £3985 ; wine, £2155 ; gin, £1962 ; rum, £888 ; whiskey, £210.

AGRICULTURE AND MANUFACTURE.—Machinery, £6481 ; implements, £4011 ; vegetable fish oil (partly for domestic lighting), £1042 ; seeds, £832 ; fish oil, £244.

HOUSEHOLD HARDWARE.—Ironmongery, £7981 ; earthenware and glass-ware, £1472 ; tin-ware, £536 ; lucifer matches, £182.

ARTICLES OF LUXURY.—Household furniture, £3516 ; oilman's stores, £3025 ; tobacco, £1638 ; musical instruments, £1216 ; plate and jewellery, £575 ; philosophical instruments, £381 ; perfumery, £353.

BUILDING MATERIALS.—Iron, £1190; wood, £780; lead, £667; paint, £560; nails, £341; window glass, £295; paper hangings, £277; slates, £228; fire bricks, £120; zinc, £80; cement, £26.

Candles cost £1322; soap, £711; stationery, £2459; printed books, £1237. The cost of printing materials was £432. Guns to the value of £954 were imported, and also 9653 barrels of gunpowder. (This article is, however, only imported by, and sold under the special permit of the Government.)

In addition to the articles specified above, 15,000 pairs of cotton blankets, worth £3598, were brought into the colony, and £5786 worth of beads. Neither of these properly are for the use of young Natal. Young Natal likes millinery; but has not yet taken to necklaces. The beads and cotton blankets are entirely for the Kafir trade. The articles which are imported expressly for the use of the Kafirs, are known collectively as "*Kafir truck*." They consist of blankets, sheets, rugs, shoes, coloured beads, brass wire and finger and arm rings. There are shops for the sale of these valuables in all the towns and principal settlements of the colony, round which groups of Kafirs may be constantly seen admiring the wares contained within. Supplies of these commodities are conveyed over the borders into Zululand by traders, travelling either with packs or waggons on their own account, and wandering on from kraal to kraal until their stock of saleable merchandize is exhausted. The itinerant traders are especially favoured by King Panda, who has instituted a law in their behalf, to the effect that "no white man shall sleep in the grass" within his dominions. Payment for the "truck" disposed of is principally made in cattle, ostrich feathers, and ivory.

The chief importers of merchandize are the merchants of Durban, who keep in stock a heterogeneous assortment of all kinds of goods, which they dispose of wholesale to the retail shopkeepers, or send to depôts which they have formed by their enterprize in the upper districts, and in the Independent Dutch States beyond. A very large and profitable trade is now carried on through these branch stations, which extend quite to the Mooi River Dorp, four hundred miles distant from the Port. The articles in most request in the remote Dutch settlements are tea, coffee, sugar, and manufactured goods. The journey between

the Bay and the extreme stations in the Transvaal, is performed by the ox-waggons of the traders in three weeks, and the price of the commodities is of course greatly increased by the time they are delivered at their destination. Prices are, however, not so much increased by this cause as might be expected. The value of the trade with the Dutch States beyond the Drakenberg, which is technically known as the "Overberg trade," was estimated last year at £60,000.

An amusing notion of the heterogeneous character of mercantile proceedings in Natal, will be gleaned from the following selection of articles contained in an advertisement of one of the Durban merchants, which appears in a weekly newspaper, bearing the date of June 23rd, 1859.

Geneva	Pale ale
Countess slates	Coal tar
Lead	Sheet glass
Wrapping paper	Jamaica ginger
Sugar candy	Currants
Umgazi beads	Yarmouth herrings
Ruby beads	Hops
Rose beads	Eau de Cologne
Lemon beads	Prunes
Sky-blue beads	Gloucester cheese
Black beads	Blankets
Tambo beads	Salempores
Pink beads	Shirts
Green beads	Moderator lamps
White beads	Champagne glasses
Micanda beads	American clocks
Brass wire	Blotting paper
Kafir hatchets	Slating nails
Yellow wood	Lime
Fire bricks	

Of the £173,000 worth of imports brought into the colony last year, nearly £118,000 worth came from Great Britain; £40,000 worth from the Cape of Good Hope; £8000 from the Mauritius; nearly £4000 worth from Akyab; £1500 worth from the St. John's River; £766 worth from Holland; £550 worth from Hanover; and £60 from Zanzibar.

In the year 1848, colonial produce to the value of £10,000 was exported. In 1850, the value of exported colonial produce was £15,000. In 1852, it was £20,000; in 1855, it was £45,000; in 1857, it was £78,000; and in 1858, £91,000.

The most important articles of exportation from Natal, are ivory, wood, hides, butter, wool, arrow-root, and sugar. The following statement shows the value of these exports for each year during the last six.

	1853	1854	1855	1856	1857	1858
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
Ivory	8,634	14,688	13,504	13,715	18,170	31,000
Wood	1,958	3,599	1,705	691	885	1,300
Hides	902	2,041	3,201	11,568	22,365	16,487
Butter	5,506	8,444	8,915	7,591	12,142	15,682
Wool	3,450	3,366	8,331	7,325	9,887	11,360
Arrow-root	31	97	999	1,826	3,135	5,464
Sugar	0	2	19	483	2,008	3,860

The only other articles of any consequence exported during the past year from Natal, were fifty-six horses, worth £1227, to the Mauritius; eighty-five pounds of ostrich feathers, worth £510; green fruit, to the Cape and the Mauritius, worth £298; Indian corn and oats, to the Cape and the Mauritius, worth £311; molasses, to the Cape, worth £207; flour and meal, to the Cape, worth £91; rhinoceros' horns, worth £455; dressed skins of the calf, sheep, and goat, worth £213; dressed skins of wild animals, worth £102.

Of £100,000 worth of merchandize sent out from Natal during the past year, £56,000 worth went to Great Britain; £38,000 worth to the Cape of Good Hope; £3000 worth to the Mauritius; £3000 worth to the St. John's River; and £93 to Zanzibar.

The following table exhibits at one glance a very fair picture of the commercial position and growth of the colony. It gives for a period of eighteen years the tonnage of vessels employed in the import and export trades for each year, and also the value of both imports and exports, and the amount of customs' dues paid upon the former.

Years.	Tonnage of Inward-bound Ships.	Value of Imports.	Tonnage of Outward-bound Ships.	Value of Colonial Exports.	Duty paid on Imports.
		£		£	£
1843	519	11,712	489	1,261	1516
1844	1831	41,441	1858	11,094	4041
1845	2781	40,591	2441	10,161	3415
1846	3528	41,958	3678	15,409	3510
1847	3226	46,981	3226	13,669	3207
1848	4166	46,204	3761	10,683	4705
1849	5905	55,921	6066	11,265	5802
1850	16581	111,015	14,940	15,613	10,911
1851	8951	125,462	8,829	17,423	12,122
1852	6138	103,701	6,460	20,164	10,003
1853	5015	98,534	6,138	26,694	9,800
1854	8049	112,492	7,823	37,555	10,816
1855	3705	86,551	4,287	45,126	8,612
1856	5007	102,512	5,149	53,931	10,227
1857	8117	184,549	7,973	77,844	14,626
1858	11025	172,832	10,690	90,882	15,904

The revenue of Natal is derived from the rent and sale of land; transfer dues; stamps; the Post-office; a direct hut-tax of seven shillings per annum on each Kafir hut; auction dues; licenses; port and harbour dues; and the customs' duty.

A small quit-rent of from £3 to £4 per annum is charged on farms of 6,000 acres, granted by Government. A duty of £4 per cent. is charged on all sales of immovable property. Auction dues of £2 per cent. are levied on public sales of movable

property, and £1 per cent. on immovable property. One pound per month is charged for each saw, cutting wood on crown-lands. The harbour dues are four shillings and sixpence per foot for the draught of vessels entering the Port.

The principal fees for licenses levied by Government are yearly, for butchers £3; bakers £2; retail shops £1 10s.; spirits and wine (near town) £20; spirits and wine (in provincial districts) £8; auctioneers £3; brewers £30; distillers £30; public billiard-tables £7 10s.; special license for marriage £3 10s.; admission of notaries, £7 10s.

The custom duties levied on imports are:—beer and spirituous liquors 3s. per gallon; wine 2s. per gallon; guns 10s. per barrel, and pistols 5s. per barrel; coffee 10s. per cwt.; tea 4½d. per lb.; rice 1s. 6d. per cwt.; soap 1s. per cwt.; sugar 4s. per cwt.; tobacco 40s. per cwt.; and beads 3d. per lb. All other articles are charged an *ad valorem* duty of £6 per cent. The customs' duty, on the goods imported into the colony during the past year, amounted to £15,904. Printed books, flour and grain, machinery, salt, seeds, and casks, are free. A law, recently passed, will shortly come into force, to increase slightly the duties on some of these articles, and to impose duty upon machinery and agricultural implements.

The yearly revenue of the colony, for the years from 1850 to 1856, varied between 25,700 and £29,700. In 1857 it was £41,000; and in 1858, £42,800.

The revenue of the colony for the year 1858 amounted to £47,043. This sum was derived from the following sources, and in the proportions expressed by the figures.

Customs' duty	£15,990
Port and harbour dues	160
Land sales	216
Land revenue	1848
Rents	11
Transfer duties	2374
Auction duties	583
Licenses	150
Stamps	1563
Taxes	11,725
Postage	1729

Fines, forfeitures, and court fees	£1955
Fees of office	525
Sale of Government property	96
Reimbursements	195
Miscellaneous	1599
Refunded sums and surcharges	69
Special receipts	3265
Advances repaid	2982

The expenditure of the colony for the year 1858, amounted to £48,209. This sum was distributed to the various services as follows :—

CIVIL ESTABLISHMENTS.

The Lieutenant-Governor	£1350
Executive Council	50
Colonial Secretary	1466
Secretary for Native Affairs	668
Colonial Treasurer	665
Auditor	829
Registrar of Deeds	362
Distributor of Stamps	100
Surveyor-General	876
Customs	1088
Port-office	762
Post-office	756
Field-Commandants	413
Ferry-men	255

JUDICIAL ESTABLISHMENTS, &c.

Supreme Court	£2129
Sheriff	195
Attorney-General	837
Division Courts	4324
Ecclesiastical Establishments	684
Educational Establishments	352
Medical Establishments	317
Police and Gaols	1815
Pensions and allowances	450
Revenue services	595
Administration of Justice	217
Education	478
Hospitals	267
Police and Gaols	811
Rent	610
Transport	457
Conveyance of mails	1977

Works and buildings	£1666
Roads, streets, and bridges	3693
Miscellaneous	4419
Aborigines	229
Native purposes, reserved under Royal Charter	2229
Immigration	155
Gratuities to Religious, Charitable, and Scientific Institutions	297
Sums refunded and surcharges removed	506
Special payments	2592
Advances made	2151

REMITANCES TO AGENTS—

For Immigration purposes	£3000
For Education	100
For purchase of gunpowder	1000

In the same year the Home Government expended on behalf of the colony—

Pay and food for Royal Troops engaged in protection	£28,049
For military works and stores	1,106

The public expenditure of the colony for the last eight years has been—

1850	£21,361
1851	20,777
1852	25,232
1853	28,688
1854	31,642
1855	28,301
1856	28,916
1857	33,683
1858	43,646

A Banking Company, with a capital of £20,000 in £5 shares, has now been carrying on operations in Natal during five years. The shares of the company bring, at public sales, at the present time, £7 12s. each, and the Directors have for some time declared a dividend of £15 per cent. This Bank transacts business with the Union Bank of London. Its establishment has proved a very great benefit to the mercantile community. It has offices and a Board of Directors, in both Maritzburg and Durban, and its affairs are in a very prosperous condition, as the appended statement will show.

Abstract of the Accounts of the NATAL BANK for each year since its establishment.

On	Capital paid up.	Reserved Fund.	Undivided Profits.	Deposits.	Gross Profits.	Net Profits.	Dividends declared.	Notes in Circulation	Amount of Bills Discounted.	Stock of Bills on Hand.	Cash on Hand.
	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.
31st December, 1854, 8 months.	6761 15 0	118 16 1	453 18 8	21444 17 1	1774 6 11	572 14 9		619	48118 2 4	21962 13 2	7549 3 11
31st December, 1855, 12 months.	11293 5 0	983 4 4	805 17 8	25770 4 11	4818 5 10	2007 0 10	16½ 0/0	690	89222 9 3	23677 10 3	9445 8 4
31st December, 1856, 12 months.	13565 15 0	1355 17 2	542 15 8	30187 18 5	4073 16 3	1679 8 4	10 0/0	1315	108581 1 2	37522 11 6	6812 15 2
31st December, 1857, 12 months.	16055 5 0	2079 8 3	939 5 10	37753 0 10	6192 14 7	3626 17 7	15 0/0	2256	175208 9 0	55089 13 6	8854 7 - 1
31st December, 1858, 12 months.	19213 15 0	3045 0 0	1065 9 10	47795 5 3	8051 2 10	4206 6 1	15 0/0	2621	199264 18 6	60982 2 1	17652 3 11
30th June, 1859, 6 months.	20000 0 0	3770 0 0	1977 9 4	68540 8 4	5510 8 10	2725 0 0	7½ 0/0	2213	138221 2 9	81069 4 2	25991 12 8

During the above period the rates of Interest allowed on twelve months' deposits were from 5 to 8 %.

Discount charged were from 8 to 12 %.

C. BEHRENS,
General Manager.

Natal Bank, 25th August, 1859.

It may be here stated that money is of exceeding value in Natal. Where there is so much of important and remunerative work for enterprise to perform, and where inhabitants are yet so scarce, it could hardly be otherwise. Twelve per cent. is common interest for capital in Natal. In the *Natal Mercury* of July 8th, 1858, an advertisement appeared to the following effect :—

“Natal Fire Assurance and Trust Company.—Other three thousand pounds on loan.

“Notice is hereby given that applications will be received until Wednesday the 21st instant, from parties applying for loans on mortgage or on other good securities.

“Interest payable half-yearly, to be *not less than £12 per cent.*

“By order of the Board of Directors,

“Maritzburg.

(Signed)

“C. BEHRENS, Secretary.”

Investments upon good security may be constantly found at £16 per cent., and even higher rates of interest. Money indeed is so scarce and so desired a commodity in the colony, that any capitalist bringing with him a moderate supply, may sit himself down quietly, and amass a considerable fortune by merely lending his capital out to his more enterprising neighbours.

The average prices of the various articles of consumption in Natal, at the present time, are—wheaten flour, £2 12s. 6d. per barrel of 196 lbs. ; wheat, 10s. per bushel ; wheaten bread, 3½d. per lb. ; butter, 1s. 2d. per lb. ; cheese, 1s. per lb. ; beef, 4d. per lb. ; mutton, 6d. per lb. ; pork, 6d. per lb. ; rice, 3d. per lb. ; coffee, 1s. per lb. ; tea, 2s. 11d. per lb. ; sugar, 5½d. per lb. ; salt, 11s. per cwt. ; milk, 3¾d. per quart ; Cape wine, 1s. 4d. per bottle ; Cape brandy, 2s. 8½d. per bottle ; beer, 1s. 4½d. per bottle ; tobacco, 1s. 9d. per lb.

Oxen, £5. to £8. each ; cows, £3 to £5 each. (Horned cattle, £3 8s. 6d. each.) Horses, £18. each ; sheep, 18s. to £1 each ; goats, 5s. 3d. each ; swine, £1 1s. each.

Fire-wood is purchased in the towns at from 12s. to 16s. the waggon-load ; a quantity enough to keep up a single fire for about three weeks.

The following list presents at a glance the series of vegetable productions which have been found to thrive in Natal :—

PLANTS OF COMMERCIAL VALUE.

Sugar-cane	Hemp
Coffee	Tobacco
Arrow-root	Sesamum
Rice	Earth-nut
Cotton	Turmeric
Capsicum	Ginger
Flax	Indigo

GRAIN.

Indian corn	Guinea corn
Oats	Buck wheat
Kafir corn (millet)	Wheat
Barley	

ESCULENT PLANTS.

Wild asparagus	Sea-kale
Native spinach	Spinach
Native fennel	Tomato
Potatoes	Asparagus
Cabbage	Celery
Beans	Sweet potatoes
Peas	Pumpkins
Beet-root	Shalots
Carrots	Onions
Turnips	Thyme
Parsnips	Mint
Radishes	Horse-radish
Cucumber	Sage
Vegetable marrow	Parsley
Lettuce	

FRUITS.

Plantain	Grape
Banana	Melon
Papaw	Almond
Pine apple	Walnut
Guava	Chesnut
Granadilla	Strawberry
Orange	Loquat
Lemon	Fig
Citron	Wild fig
Pomegranate	Wild medlar
Lime	Natal plum (amatungula)
Mulberry	Amatunduluka
Peach	Water-boom
Apricot	Wild olive

Nectarine	Prickly pear
Quince	Kau apple
Apple	Cape gooseberry
Pear	

NATIVE TIMBER TREES.

Yellow wood	Red milk wood
Bastard yellow wood	White milk wood
Sneeze wood	Red ivory wood
Stink wood	Chesnut wood
White iron wood	Tomboti wood
Black iron wood	Saffron wood
Umsimhiti (Kafir iron wood)	Rooi Bessje wood
White-pear wood	Essen wood
Assegai wood	Bitter-almond wood
Flat-crown wood	

MEDICINAL PLANTS.

Aloe	Strychnine
Capsicum	Senna
Castor oil	Sarsaparilla
Eupherbia	

CHAPTER X.

A FEW WORDS TO EMIGRANTS.

THE individual who is needed beyond all others in Natal is the capitalist, who can bring with him money to be employed in the advancement of the material interests of the young community, and a sufficient spirit of enterprize to induce him to expend that capital in the creation of wealth for the colony, as well as for himself. An interesting illustration of the impulse that may be communicated by a solitary individual possessing intelligence and energy, has been afforded within the last few months. The brief sojourn of a civil engineer, who came to the colony to investigate its fitness for the cultivation of sugar, has already issued in the laying down a line of railway from the harbour to the town of Durban, and in the determination to make trial of surf-boats along the coast, for the embarkation of the produce of the sugar-plantations. Apart, however, from the wide field of this nature which is open to men of a high standard of attainment, there are also the patent facts that any one may make from twelve to sixteen per cent. by finding money for other persons to employ; that the outlay of every sixteen pounds, on the coast lands, in the cultivation of sugar, may very soon be made to yield a yearly profit of nine pounds, and that the outlay of £1800 in sheep-farming in the uplands, will yield a return of £90 in the first year, and a rapidly increasing sum year by year afterwards. The capitalist who inclines upon these temptations and considerations to transplant his influence and activities to Natal, has only on the other side to learn that he will do so at the risk of having to dispense with many conveniences and luxuries that he has in all probability been accustomed to in his English home. This will be the price he

will have to pay for his increased opportunities, and usefulness. He, however, is the person of all others who will be the least at the mercy of these inconveniences. He will be able very soon to build himself a commodious and comfortable residence in any position he may select; it will also be open to him to arrange for the presence of a sufficient staff of white servants to render him independent in the matter of domestic work, if he care to do so. Beyond the dwelling-place and service, there is scarcely anything in Natal that a reasonable Englishman of cultivated tastes would feel to be ground of dissatisfaction and regret.

To the small capitalist possessing from £200 to £500, the advantages held out by the colony of Natal, as a place of residence and work, are very great. Land is so cheap, that for the mere sum which would be paid in England for a single year's rental, a man may purchase hundreds of acres of his own, where he may sow and reap his own crops, improve his own fields, fell his own trees, and gather his own fruits. Good farms are at the present time continually selling by private proprietors for two shillings per acre. Those who do not care to be proprietors of their own land at first may hire at almost nominal rentals, and in many instances upon terms so advantageous that they would seem absolutely incredible to tenant-farmers at home. The following advertisement,^e which appeared in the columns of the *Government Gazette* of August 17, 1858, will aptly illustrate this statement.

"To Let,—a portion of the farm, 'New Lanark',—all but adjoining the town-lands; admirably adapted for a dairy, the grass being very excellent for cows, sheep, goats, and horses. Its proximity to the town will enable the tenant to send in milk daily; to say nothing about butter and eggs. *First year, rent free*—a few cows,^f and such other facilities as a good-natured old colonist might be expected to render an honest new colonist, until he 'finds his feet.'

"Apply to David Dale Buchanan, junior, who will show the land."

Englishmen who have never strayed beyond the fences of the counties of Norfolk or Kent,^g may possibly be slow of belief of the existence of a state of affairs, even within ten thousand miles of them, where a good dairy-farm is offered to be let for nothing, and a few cows are thrown in. This advertisement

nevertheless is in every sense an honest one, and entirely in good faith. It relates to an instance that is very far from being a solitary occurrence. Again and again old colonists have actually given new comers farms rent free, and have left in their charge large herds of cattle and pigs, with the simple understanding that the increase should be divided equally between the tenant and the proprietor. Arrangements of this character are now not often made, simply because the immigrant prefers to work entirely for his own advantage, and experiences no difficulty in selecting a suitable occupation where he may do so.

To the facility with which the small capitalist may find a suitable field for his exertions, certain other advantages are added. Away from the town no direct tax of any kind has to be paid. The farmer needs to contribute nothing more to the State than a small addition to the cost of such articles of consumption as he receives from beyond the sea, and this small addition falls very lightly upon the pocket, on account of the cheap rate at which other articles of prime necessity may be procured. In the wild country the cost of living is very small indeed.

The cost of additional labour is also very low. Kafirs are hired as household servants, at wages which vary from six shillings to ten shillings per month, and their board, which principally consists of Indian corn. Sometimes the Kafir is paid five or six shillings per month extra, and feeds himself. The cost of each Kafir servant to his employer may be put down altogether at about £10 per year. Field labourers receive from seven shillings to ten shillings per month; waggon-drivers about twenty-five shillings per month. The settler, however, must understand that, although he can obtain service at these low rates, he must be mainly dependent upon his own hands at the first. The Kafirs will do whatever they are taught to accomplish, and whatever they are kept up to the mark to perform. But at present very few of them have had any kind of skilled training, and by temperament the race is disinclined to sustained labour. By good management and constant watchfulness a great deal of valuable service may be got out of the Kafir. But when left to himself, he sits upon his haunches, and gossips and snuffs half his time. It is also another very serious draw-back, for which

at present no efficient remedy has been contrived, that the Kafir will not enter upon any long term of service. He will work for a few weeks, or possibly for a few months, and then taking the proceeds of his labour, he goes off to his kraal to pay his hut-tax, and to invest his gains in cattle and wives, and to enjoy himself. On this account there is very little inducement for the white settler to devote any particular amount of pains to the training of his men. By the time one agent has become of fair value, on account of having learned to do what is required of him, he disappears, and a raw recruit has to be taken up in his place. Some housekeepers manage to escape in a considerable degree from this difficulty, by arranging a relay of servants: some ready to come into labour when others go off to play. Where there is management and system enough to carry this plan into effect, it answers very well. Trained servants will return to good masters, by whom they have been kindly treated, at stated times and after having had a fair run. Proprietors who have Kafir kraals upon their property generally experience less difficulty than other persons, in procuring a good supply of labour; they come to an understanding with the head man of the kraal that he and his people shall be allowed to continue in their squatting, and enjoy certain other advantages, upon condition of furnishing a certain quantity of work at a certain price. To persons who do not hold this position of influence, an abundant mealie harvest, or the arrival of the cold weather, is at any time sufficient to produce a dearth of servants. It must also be added that some persons experience very much greater difficulty than others in procuring Kafir service. If any one gets a bad name as an employer, his reputation runs from one end of the colony to the other, like wild-fire, and he has very small chance indeed of tempting any applicant for work to cross his threshold. When a Kafir is going out to seek employment, he first reconnoitres from a distance any household that he takes a fancy to, provided he has no standing engagement to fulfil, and then before he comes to closer quarters, carefully ascertains from the gossip of the neighbourhood what treatment he may expect.

Notwithstanding the fair probability that he will be able ultimately to procure the assistance of Kafir servants to any

extent he may desire, the small capitalist should nevertheless go upon the assumption, when he emigrates to Natal, that he will be mainly dependent upon his own hands, and the hands of his family. It is of the very highest importance that this necessity should be clearly understood and fully realized. Indeed, the entire chances of final success really turn upon this point. No one who has been used to a life of refinement, and dependence upon others in England, should ever turn to the rough prospects of a young colony without first having carefully determined his ability to meet the discomforts, and to perform the new functions which will necessarily await him there. On the other hand, any one who is conscious that he possesses sufficient ingenuity, determination, and industry to serve himself and to supply his own needs, may very fairly reckon, however small his means, upon working his way quickly to competence and comfort. These remarks apply with ten-fold force to the gentler sex. A man who takes with him to the colony either a wife or daughter, who is able to arrange and carry on, as well as to superintend, the details of the internal economy of his household, will find that he has in such a companion a helpmate beyond all price. The colonist's wife should know how to cook and bake; and how to iron and get up linen; she should be able upon a pinch to clean and place in order the sleeping and dwelling-rooms of the house; and she should be well skilled in the use of her needle. She ought also to have energy enough to teach and rule the Kafirs entrusted with in-door occupations. Besides all this, she should have the temperament, and bodily strength, which will enable her to find pleasure in these household engagements. The delicately-nurtured lady, who can do none of these things, should on no account be transplanted to what must necessarily prove to her a sadly ungenial soil. In Natal *she* can find, at present, nothing but vexations, hardships, sorrows, and regrets.

The settler who *has* self-helpfulness and practicality enough to meet the requirements of rough colonial life, will find a very immediate compensation and reward. It would be a mistake of the most flagrant kind to conceive that the existence of the self-dependent settler is wearisome and monotonous, however far he

may be withdrawn into the lonely wild. The less aid and countenance he has from companions, the more he has to think of and to do himself. There are the fittings and conveniences of the house to be planned and enlarged; shelves to be put up; hinges and fastenings screwed on; perhaps even tables and chairs to be made. Then there is a pig to be killed and salted; young oxen to break in; and a buck to be shot for the larder. The plough, the waggon, the seed-time, the harvest, the cattle, the horses, the sheep; all to receive their share of his attention and regard. Fences have to be made. Fire-wood must be cut and brought in. Every hour and every minute has its occupation. Days and weeks fly faster than they ever do in any more civilized part of the world. Every new comfort added, and every fresh difficulty conquered, confer a gratification of the keenest kind. In addition to this source of pleasure there is also the agreeable sense of emancipation from the thralldom of slavery to appearances. The industrious colonist may walk or ride abroad in whatever dress best suits either his fancy or finances. His family, as well as he himself, may pursue their avocations their own way, without having once to think of how they will stand in public esteem in consequence of their doings. The temptation to incur expenditure beyond legitimate means is never felt for a moment. But in its place there very soon comes the colonial experience, that the more self-reliant and industrious the entire household-community is, the more it wins of general admiration and esteem.

Individuals, who have been trained to the learned professions, must not expect to find facilities for the practice of their special acquirements, in Natal. As a general rule, there is a very limited demand for this class of service, and the few who do enter upon professional life, meet with a proportionally limited and precarious reward for their labours. Young and rude colonies care more about hands than heads. The land-surveyor is perhaps the solitary exception to this general rule. Most of the members of the learned professions who come out to Natal, very soon turn into farmers, or find some other more remunerative work than attending upon patients or clients. It should be here understood that sound professional knowledge is a very valuable possession

in the colony, and capable of being turned to most excellent account, when it is superadded to other attainments of a lower and more generally practical class. It should, however, be looked upon as a means of indirect influence and usefulness, rather than as a direct resource for a livelihood. There is a very limited demand also for clerks, shopmen, and persons of that class. Any, however, who have been brought up at home to such occupations, may be quite sure of very soon providing suitable and congenial work for themselves, if they come to the colony prepared to keep their eyes about them, and to turn their activities into any promising channel that is perceived.

Merchants and tradesmen do not very readily find fresh openings in the colony. Their occupations require but little foreknowledge or preparation, and there are therefore always great numbers of persons ready at hand to avail themselves of any opportunity of this kind that occurs. The merchants of the colony are for the most part connected with firms in England, and therefore possess great advantages in procuring their supplies of merchandize. Nothing could be more unwise than for any individual to emigrate to Natal with the purpose of starting in *business* immediately upon his arrival, and while yet entirely unacquainted with the wants and necessities of the population of the place.

There is a very large demand for handicraft labour in Natal. Workmen who experience in England difficulty in getting employment, even at wages that are barely sufficient to furnish the necessaries of life, may reckon with certainty upon an immediate engagement in the colony at seven shillings and sixpence per day. If the workman has children, he may also make himself equally sure of remunerative employment for any or all of them, who are above ten years of age. To the tyro in colonial affairs, it is at first a somewhat amusing sight to see the mechanical labourer, who has been used enough to hard work and hard fare at home, calling to his personal Kafir attendant to pick up for him the saw or hammer which he is about to use. The workman in Natal rarely thinks of carrying his own basket of tools. He walks along the road on his way to work with one or two laden Kafirs behind him. Blacksmiths receive ten

shillings per day. Carpenters, bricklayers, masons, shoemakers, and tailors, seven shillings and sixpence per day. Handicraftsmen of all kinds, indeed, are in such high request, that they constitute a kind of petted and privileged class in the colony, and if they be of steady and reliable habits, they may use their privileges to their own certain aggrandizement. Mechanical tradesmen in the towns are in the receipt of excellent incomes; and some of them keep their one or two riding-horses. The supply of mechanics is so much under the needs of the colony, that no complaint is more commonly heard than that of the impossibility of getting important work done. One reason for the deficiency is the temptation that is offered to the mechanic, in the colony, to abandon his early occupation for the more pleasant life of the country-farmer. By steady work he soon saves enough money to purchase and stock land of his own, and then sets himself up as an agriculturist. The supply from home has therefore to meet this drain, as well as the current and increasing demands of a multiplying population and augmenting enterprize.

Agricultural labourers are of great value in the colony. It is almost impossible to keep anything like a fair supply of them, because the man who comes out from England to-day as a labourer, is a farmer and proprietor of his own land to-morrow. No man continues to follow the plough for a master when he can follow it more remuneratively for himself. About four years ago an agricultural labourer came out from one of the eastern counties of England in the service of a gentleman of high station. After a couple of years he left the service of his employer. The master for whom he had worked in England, hearing of this change, sent word to him that he would be glad to have him back, and would give him constant employment if he would return. The reply was, "Tell my master if he will come out here to me, I will make him a free gift of five hundred acres of land, all for himself." The labourer is now his own master, and living near the Umkomanzi upon three thousand acres of land of his own, which he received as a Government grant. He has built himself a house, and cuts down from his almost limitless woods his own timber, which he disposes of at the price of £6 a waggon-load.

Ploughmen and shepherds in the colony receive from £5 to £6 per month as wages. At the estate of the Umzinto Sugar Company, labourers receive £5 per month, and a house to live in. The wife of one of the men working for the company on these terms, states that she can make fifteen shillings a-week, by washing clothes, as an addition to her husband's wages.

Household servants of every class are in constant and high demand. The wages of female domestics vary from £15 to £20 a-year. White servants are, indeed, scarcely to be had, because they invariably find more pleasant modes of life open to them immediately on their arrival in the new land.

The voyage to Natal occupies between eighty and ninety days. The *Lady of the Lake*, a barque of 256 tons, which trades regularly between London and Natal, has made the passage, upon an average for eight voyages, in seventy-seven days, including a stoppage at the intermediate Port of Algoa Bay. The passage is occasionally accomplished in less time. The brig *Portea*, in the year 1856, arrived at the Port in fifty-six days, and in 1858 the three-masted schooner *Phantom* was within fifty miles of the Port sixty-eight days after leaving Plymouth. The mail-steamers, at the present time, make the voyage between England and the Cape of Good Hope in thirty-five days; and the Natal mail-steamer, *Waldensian*, then reaches Durban in ten more days, having called at Mossel Bay, Algoa Bay, and East London by the way. A few days are lost at Cape Town between the arrival of the English steamer and the departure of the *Waldensian*. Altogether the mail-service is performed by these vessels with a surprising amount of regularity. The letters which leave England on the 6th of one month are delivered at Durban on the 28th or 29th of the following month, and it very rarely happens that the delivery is more than two or three days beyond. It is in contemplation to establish a line of postal and steam-packet communication between the Mauritius and Port Natal; and when this is accomplished, if this scheme be carried out, London will be brought within a thirty-four days' voyage of the colony.

The fares from England to Cape Town, by the mail-steamers, amount to about fifty guineas for each passenger. The fares from

Cape Town to Natal are ten guineas. There are several vessels trading regularly and direct to the colony, which have very good accommodation for passengers. The fares in such ships vary from £30 to £40 for the cabin accommodation, and from £10 to £20 for the steerage. The English agents for passenger ships are—

Lamport & Holt, 21, *Water Street, Liverpool.*

T. & C. Nichols, 150, *Leadenhall Street, London.*

Fry & Davidson, 60, *Fenchurch Street, London.*

Cookes & Co., 60, *Mark Lane, London.*

H. C. Groom, 9, *Lime Street, London.*

Pothonier, Tilsey, & Co., 150, *Leadenhall St., London.*

Messrs. Rennie, *Aberdeen.*

G. W. Wheatley & Co., 150, *Leadenhall Street*, give information respecting Ships, Ship Goods, and forward Parcels, &c., to Natal.

Messrs. W. & W. H. Savory, 3, *George Terrace, Commercial Road East, London*, also charge themselves with Commissions of the same kind.

In almost every Port of any consequence in Great Britain, there are government emigration-agents, appointed by Her Majesty's Land and Colonial Emigration Commissioners, for the express purpose of giving information and advice to emigrants on matters that immediately concern them. It is the duty of these agents to see that all vessels engaging to carry emigrants are sea-worthy, and sufficiently supplied with provisions, water, and medicine. They have also to take care that vessels sail at the time advertized, and that all agreements made between emigrants and emigration-agents are properly and punctually carried out. It may be of importance to intending emigrants to know that the Natal newspapers are regularly filed at Lloyd's Coffee-house, and the Jerusalem Coffee-house in London. A great deal of useful information as to the actual state of affairs may be gleaned by running the eye down the advertising columns of these journals.

Emigrants should encumber themselves as little as possible with luggage. A sufficient stock of clothing for the voyage and for the first year, is all that it is prudent to lay in. Clothing

suitable for the climate is now abundant in the colony, and costs only a little more than it would do in England. Boots and shoes are the most important exceptions to this statement. It will always answer to bring a good supply of these. Large stocks of superfluous clothing of other kinds, on the other hand, are exposed to the ravages of moths and various other sorts of insects, and require incessant watchfulness and care to keep them from damage. The rule for the emigrant should be as much money, and as little of anything else, as possible. The best and safest arrangement to make in the matter of the money, is to bring a letter of credit from the Union Bank of London addressed to the Natal Bank. Such a letter of credit may be procured from any branch Bank in Great Britain, and will be duly honoured in Natal, without charge for the accommodation.

English furniture should on no account be taken out by persons of narrow means, excepting trifling articles of a portable kind. The expense of freight and land-carriage, and the very imminent risk of damage during transport, are considerations which should alone be sufficient to deter the settler from burthening himself with conveniences of this character. Articles which are indispensable in the household, may be procured in the colonial stores, or may be had upon order from colonial tradesmen. Good strong boxes, not too large, and about the height of ordinary chairs, so that they may be used as seats, are always valuable. They can be turned to account in various ways by the exercise of ingenuity. Tables are best made of the yellow wood of the colony, and may be procured at a fair price upon order in any of the towns. The class of furniture which is most used in the colony, consists of various articles packed compactly into cases, in separate pieces, which are not put together until they arrive at their destination. Furniture of this kind of a very low price, is now sent to the colonial merchants in considerable quantity from America. Very excellent cane-seated American chairs are furnished in cases, in this way, at a cost of 12s. 6d. each chair. Folding iron-bedsteads and couches are also kept in store by the merchants, and are the best kind that can be used

on account of their being easily packed away for transport. The characters which are required before every thing else in furniture for Natal, are that the articles shall be strong enough and compact enough to be readily and safely conveyed in springless ox-waggons over rough roads. The place of carpets is almost entirely supplied by Kafir mats, or by Indian and Mauritius matting, the latter made from the fibre of the cocoa-nut, and very strong. These are all to be readily procured in the colony. It is somewhat curious to see how very comfortable dwelling-apartments may be made to seem, in the mild climate of Natal, by the rudest and simplest appliances. Bare floors and curtainless windows, are far from being felt as discomforts. The expenditure of a little ingenuity and contrivance, indeed, is of more avail in the matter of comfort, than the upholsterer's skill. Mattresses are made in the colony of dried sea-weed, of grass, and of wool. But it may be added that good hair mattresses are always great comforts, and are capable of being turned to account on the voyage.

Emigrants should on no account take out with them goods for sale. The chances are ten to one that they will select for their little trading venture, articles which will prove on arrival, to be altogether unsaleable. Carts and waggons are best purchased in the colony. However strongly made, or however well put together, English vehicles of this class do not stand the climate so well as those made of timber indigenous to the place. The African waggon, too, is of a construction so peculiar that it can only be made by workmen who are familiar with all its requirements and details. It is framed principally of well-seasoned stink-wood, (the wood of the *Laurus bullata*) a material of very great strength. Its several parts are so put together that the joints yield to blows and severe strain, instead of being rigid and firm. The vehicle is about three and a half feet wide and twelve feet long, and is hooded over with canvass stretched upon a frame-work of twigs: the structure actually undulates and wriggles as it passes over inequalities of the ground. It has no springs, and as the span of twelve or fourteen oxen which drag it are without reins, or any precise means of guidance, except when occasionally led by a Kafir,

it necessarily finds inequalities enough on the way. The Dutch, for the most part, make their own waggons, but some particularly devote themselves to the work as a kind of trade. The cost of a good waggon in Natal is about £100.

Emigrants often bring out with them their farming implements and tools of various kinds. It is by no means necessary that they should do so, as articles of the kind most closely adapted to the wants of colonists are now imported by the merchants in abundance. All agricultural implements require to be of the strongest and heaviest quality. The fierce sun bakes the soil so hard that no frail implement is able to stand the requisite amount of strain. Light two-horse ploughs twist and go to pieces almost as soon as they are put to work. Nothing lighter than the four-horse plough is worthy of confidence. Harrows must be upon the same scale. Garden-spades are of no value; navy-spades and the Scotch field-spades answer very well. The tools used by shipwrights, which are adapted to the working of hard wood, are very much to be preferred to ordinary carpenters' tools. Very excellent axes are imported in abundance from America. All tools brought to the colony should be strongly and carefully handled, and ready for immediate use. Harness for draught cattle had better always be procured in the colony. The chains and yokes which are sold there are well suited for their work, and cheaper than such harness as would be purchased in England; they are also of a kind that the Kafir labourers are already accustomed to use.

Emigrants of limited means should always content themselves with a steerage passage on board some good emigrant ship. The money, which they will save by this means, will prove to be of very great value to them when once landed in the colony. And besides this, a sea-voyage of two or three months, under circumstances where the individual will need to look after his own wants, is a very good preliminary lesson for one who is about to enter upon colonial life. There is no discomfort or privation which has ordinarily to be endured in a steerage-passage which may not be made very light by patience and good humour. After all, the chief real hardships at sea are such as have to be borne by the cabin passenger, as well as by those who travel in

the rougher way. Confinement within narrow and crowded spaces, and imperfect supply of light and air to the sleeping births, make up the main sum of the discomfort. These are both very much lessened on the voyage to Natal by the fact that the greater part of the passage is ordinarily a fine one, and in latitudes where the time may be principally spent upon deck, in the soft genial air. In six or seven days the vessel leaving England is commonly in the genial temperature of the South of Spain. Whilst in the Trade-wind region, rain scarcely ever falls, and the temperature of the atmosphere stands generally between 70 and 80 degrees. Two or three days of rain and intermitting squalls may be looked for near the equator, which after all serve to do little more than make a break and change in the monotony of the voyage. The wind generally becomes fresh and cool while the ship is running across the Atlantic for the Cape, and whilst it is rounding that promontory during the last week or two of the voyage. But by the time this cold has to be met, the emigrant is an old hand, and has served a sufficient apprenticeship to the sea to have learned how to take care of himself. In the majority of cases the period of real discomfort in the voyage is probably limited to the first week or ten days after leaving port.

The emigrant who makes a steerage passage will need to furnish himself with certain conveniences for use on board ship. He will find a chest divided into compartments for the reception of the provisions for the day's use a very great accommodation. He should take neither glass nor crockery, as being too frail for sea-service. The trenchers, basins, cups, jugs, and other *necessary* utensils should be of pewter, of tin, or of enamelled ware. A tin tea or coffee-pot should be furnished with hooks for hanging upon the bar of the cooking-grate. A frying-pan and a tin slop-pail should also be provided. A sufficient number of knives, forks, and spoons; a mop and broom; two or three canvas bags for soiled linen and for clothes in use; and a keg, jar, or can large enough for the day's supply of water, pretty well complete the list of requisites. The bedding should be such as will continue to be serviceable in the colony. The mattresses on ship-board measure six feet by two. These fit either into standing

bed places or into swinging cots. Whenever arrangements can be made to sling a cot, it will be found to be by far the most pleasant mode of proceeding. Cots can be readily lashed up to the beams overhead with cord by day, and let down for use at night. The swinging cot is very durable, and inexpensive ; it also makes a capital cover for the mattress and bedding when stowed away in boats or on waggons. A swinging cot can always be turned to temporary account in a colonial home.

Old clothes of any kind do very well for wearing on ship-board. Light thin grey flannel, and brown Holland, make excellent dresses for the hot latitudes. A light cap covered with white linen should never be omitted for the head.

A sufficient quantity of linen for the voyage will of course be required. Woollen shirts or Guernseys are very comfortable for the colder latitudes, and also prove excellent possessions in the subsequent colonial life. They are very commonly worn by colonists when engaged on long journeys. A couple of dozen long-cloth shirts, and half a dozen woollen ones, will be a very fair outfit. The clothes intended for colonial wear should be light and strong. Light grey flannel and stout brown Holland make very serviceable outer garments. Warm clothes are not generally wanted for more than one or two months in the year. A woollen great coat should however be at hand to fall back upon in case of need. Broad-brimmed white felt hats, or "wide-awakes," and light white napless hats of ordinary shape, are in common use in the colony. Travelling caps of light blue cloth, covered by a loose outside coating of white linen capable of being removed for washing, are also in great favour among horsemen. White-leather helmets, and helmets made of pith, which are imported from the Mauritius and India, are likewise in request. A fold of white linen rolled round the crown of a common white wide-awake, turban-fashion, constitutes a by no means contemptible defence for the head from the hot sun.

A stock of good tea, a fair supply of arrow-root, and a *small* quantity of brandy, should be entered first on the list of luxuries for the voyage. Short composite candles, adapted to some safe description of lanthorn, form altogether the most available and least objectionable kind of light at sea. The so-called Crimean

lanthorns are perhaps upon the whole the most satisfactory articles of their class.

Whilst alluding to the matter of outfit, there are two or three other articles which may advantageously be named. The settler should, if possible, take out with him a good tent. Tent-life is very common indeed in Natal, and by no means an uncomfortable one in the fine season. Settlers often live entirely in tents while building their dwelling-houses. Travellers also bivouac in them when upon long journeys. A double-barrelled gun or fowling-piece of course must not be forgotten. Gunpowder is a prohibited article. It is not allowed to be taken into the colony by private individuals, but must be purchased of the Government under permit. A few simple medicines should also be laid in, in store. The most useful and necessary articles are perhaps a little compound rhubarb-pill; half an ounce of calomel; a few grains of tartar emetic; an ounce or two of rhubarb powder; two or three ounces of laudanum; half an ounce of quinine; a little sulphate of zinc; some lint; some adhesive plaister, in a tin case; and a little thin Indian-rubber cloth; (oil-silk spoils very rapidly in the warm climate;) one or two grains of calomel, mixed with five or ten grains of the compound rhubarb-pill, and rolled into one or two pills, constitute a very safe, pleasant, and effectual medicine for *occasional* use both at sea and in the warm climate of Natal. Lint soaked in water and applied to the skin, under India-rubber cloth, makes a very valuable and manageable water-dressing either for injuries, or for external attacks of inflammatory character, of whatever kind. The articles intended for medicinal use should be carefully and compactly stored in a closely-fitting tin case.

Yet one other suggestion remains to be made which would probably be deemed superfluous by most, but which nevertheless must not be omitted, on account of the difficulty there would be in supplying the deficiency in the colony itself. The settler should take with him a good supply of standard books; and in making his selection of these, he should bear in mind the exceeding value of all works of high authority on the practical matters which are likely to engage his attention. There is not yet a single bookseller, properly so called; that is, a tradesman

keeping on hand a stock of books for the supply of customers, in Natal.

It is hardly to be expected that the landsman can exchange the firm earth for the restless sea without having to go through the ordeal of sea-sickness. This ordeal, however, is by no means very dreadful, when the voyager knows how to conduct himself through it. Various specifics have been spoken of at different times, as affording a promise of immunity from the discomfort. All of these prove to be but of small avail when made trial of by new hands. The probability is that they have all succeeded just at the instant when the disagreeable affection is passing off of its own accord, and have so recommended themselves to the faith of their practisers. The best thing to do on going to sea for a long voyage, is to lie down in the bed-berth the instant the nausea is experienced, and to abstain from food altogether for some time; then to take small quantities of plain arrow-root frequently, at first without brandy, and afterwards with a small quantity of the spirit added, and to refrain still from more solid food until an appetite begins to be felt. On the return of appetite, the patient may rise and make an ordinary meal, and the chances are that this meal will then pretty well complete the cure. Most persons may avoid actual sickness altogether by this proceeding, and confine the discomfort to the mere feeling of nausea. The system soon accommodates itself to moderate motion, but the sickness is at all times liable to recur on the occurrence of heavy weather and very violent rocking, when the same tactics may be adopted again. Most persons find a sea-voyage a very disagreeable and tedious mode of passing time. It, however, by no means needs to be so. The tedium is solely due to the want of objects of interest and occupation. Every passenger on ship-board should contrive to have some daily work to perform. The chief difficulty depends upon the impossibility of following up, in a crowded ship, pursuits that require isolation and retirement. By slow degrees, and by perseverance, however, a certain power of abstraction may be acquired. A person of kindly disposition may also always find amusement of a pleasant kind among his companions. There is no mode of life which affords greater opportunities for winning the pleasure

which comes of doing and saying kind things, than the sojourn on ship-board. It should be the first duty of every one, who is placed in the necessity of living in close communication with a number of companions for several weeks, to study how he can best make himself agreeable to all who are around him, and how he can most certainly avoid giving offence or annoyance to any one. Sea-life is notoriously a quarrelsome one, at least so far as the passenger and unoccupied part of the community is concerned. This is merely because nearly all have nothing to do, and because many do not care even to try to make themselves agreeable companions to those who are around them. It is surprising what a revolution a single individual, who has tact and kindly purpose, may effect in the humour of a ship's company.

But in addition to the pleasant social duties and occupations which he may make for himself, and to the steady day by day work, which he may have provided beforehand, the emigrant to Natal will find a constant source of interest in the mere incidents of the voyage itself, on account of its lying through a wide range of latitude. There are for observation, the working, the route, and daily progress of the ship, and the appearance night by night of new stars rising above the horizon of the southern sea, to observe. The aspects of the trade-wind skies and ocean also have to be marked as the vessel rolls and staggers, all studding sails set, like widely expanded wings, before the north-east trade; and as it bends over and bounds obliquely into the south-east trade, with stretched and sloped canvass. There are the equatorial calms and squalls to look out for; the magnificent sunsets of the tropics to be revelled in; and the glorious phosphorescence of the tropical night-waves to be wondered at. Now shoals of glistening silver-grey flying-fish skim off with a duck-and-drake sound from under the quarter. Now there is a sail in sight to be speculated about, and perhaps to be signalled and communicated with. Now there is a shark to be looked after, leading a pair of tender sharklings in the wake of the stern, after having stolen the seaman's dinner from its brine-bath before the bows. Now there are shoals of porpoises, and perhaps a whale to be watched

as it rises uncertainly here and there for blow after blow. Now in the low latitudes of the south the ship is bounding *across* the wide basin of the Atlantic before the western gale, over waves 20 feet high, and surrounded by the butterfly-plumaged Cape pigeons; the dark-plumaged Cape hens; the snipe-like whale birds; the swan-like molly mawk; and the noble albatross. And now there is the rapidly shortening span of the voyage to be measured, and the first glimpse of land to be longed for and hailed. There are, indeed, enough of variety and incident, and enough of novel experiences to be formed, in the mere voyage itself, to prevent time from hanging wearisomely, when the interest is once awakened for, and the attention once fixed upon, what is taking place around.

The colony of Natal is itself now becoming every year more anxious to bring a steady and continued stream of emigrants to its shores, under the keen sense of how essential it is to its own progress and prosperity, that new bands of fellow-workers should be added to the ranks of those already within its bounds. As a proof of the deep interest that is felt in the colony in this vital matter, it may be stated that the Legislative Council have voted from £2000 to £3000 annually of public money to be expended in advancing the movement of emigration from home. This little book is published under the authority of the Immigration Board, with a view to the same end; and in putting it forth, the greatest care has been taken that a picture of actual facts, and nothing more, shall be presented for the consideration of such as may be inclined from any cause to seek a new field for their industry and exertion. Old colonists now settled in Natal feel that no better plan can possibly be adopted to bring recruits to their insufficient ranks, than the publication to the world of the unvarnished tale of the capabilities and characteristics of their present home.

Within the last year or two, a plan has been adopted to afford increased facilities for emigration from Great Britain, which has worked very satisfactorily, and which it is possible may now be somewhat extended. The colonial government provides a passage out for emigrants, upon the guarantee by residents in Natal of the re-payment of £10 of the passage-money; a family

may be brought out by the guarantee of the re-payment of £10 each year, until £10 for each adult has been returned. The persons who avail themselves of this arrangement, are of course acquaintances, friends, or relatives of existing colonists. As many as 150 individuals came to the colony in this way during the past year. A stronger evidence of the confidence which colonial residents feel in the promise of their new home, could hardly be given than that which is furnished by this fact.

The first thing which the agriculturally-inclined emigrant has to do on arriving in Natal, is to decide upon the character of his future proceedings and to select suitable land. He will do well in the first place to devote a few days to inquiry and conversation amongst old settlers. He will find many both able and willing to give him every information that he can possibly require. In the year 1857 the colonial government came to the determination to make land-grants to emigrants, on the condition of personal occupation, and of the payment of a small annual quit-rent, varying from one to ten farthings per acre, according to the value of the situation. The grants consisted of from 300 to 3,000 acres, according to the situation and value of the land. A large number of grants were made to persons already residing within the colony upon these terms. In the month of July, 1858, however, instructions came from the home government to discontinue these free grants, and to revert to the system of public land-sales at the upset price of four shillings per acre. A strong feeling is prevalent in the colony, that in the existing state of affairs this change has not been a wise one. Many of the original grants, comprising very valuable land, are now in the market, in consequence of the original possessors having found it inconvenient to occupy them. A non-occupation tax, amounting to four times the quit-rent, was from the first levied on all persons taking the land, and not residing upon it.

It has been stated elsewhere that coast-land may be now purchased at prices varying from 15s. to £5 per acre, land near to the Port being of course more valuable than that further away. In the midland districts, land may be bought at from 3s. to 15s. per acre. In the upland districts, the price is lower than

this. The value of land in the colony is steadily rising year by year, as the capabilities of the soil are becoming more developed.

When the choice of a settler falls upon a piece of government land, application for permission to purchase must be made to the office of the Surveyor-General, in Maritzburg. His Excellency, the Lieutenant-governor, then, in consequence of the application, causes the land to be advertized in the *Government Gazette*, as for sale by public auction, fixing the day of the sale. Lots from private property, not suitable for sugar-planting, sell upon an average for half the government upset-price.

As soon as the selection of land has been made, and the character of the future occupation determined upon, the settler should proceed to transport his possessions at once to the selected place. A few days of deliberation are well expended before fixing upon the spot for final operations. But the decision having once been made, no further time should be lost in hanging about the towns. The first emigrants to the colony, on account of not knowing how to proceed, suffered heavy loss in this way, and frequently were kept back by difficulties which had no existence save in their own fears and fancies.

If the settler, arrived upon his ground, has a good tent, he proceeds at once to pitch and make it comfortable as a dwelling-place, while he is building a more convenient and enduring residence. In doing this, he uses stone if he has a supply upon the spot. In many places there are very good specimens of sandstone, or a kind of hardened shale, which are easily quarried. If there be no stone at hand, bricks will have to be made with the aid of a few moulds, and Kafir labourers. Where fuel is abundant, the bricks may be burned before using. Otherwise they can only be sun-dried, and the walls, under such circumstances, must be protected from wet by projecting verandahs of thatch. Mortar and plaister are formed of cow-dung and clay. The timber required for the doors and windows, and the roof, must be cut from the neighbouring bush. The floors are plastered with a mixture of cow-dung and clay, the composition in general use among the Kafirs, which hardens into a smooth firm floor, and which has the further excellence of being disliked by insects. Glass for

windows can be readily procured from the stores in the towns, and the thatch is cut from the neighbouring pasture. Workmen able to superintend the various steps of the building proceedings, may generally be hired in the colony for limited periods, and wood-work may be prepared by the tradesmen resident in the towns, and sent to the spot where it is needed. The settler, however, who has learned enough of constructive work to be able to get through his building with no other aid than such as he can teach his Kafir assistants to give him, will find his skill a great gain. Very many colonists build their own houses in this way. The advantage which the Dutch settlers possessed over their English successors, in a large measure depended upon their ability to perform this kind of work for themselves. It is very easily performed, because houses of slight construction are amply sufficient to afford as much protection as is needed in a South African climate. Very few colonists, indeed, ever aspire to have two stories to their dwellings. It is a great stretch of luxury to nail grey calico, as a sort of ceiling, beneath the rafters. In most country houses the apartments are open above to the rafters and the thatch.

Waggon-driving is an art which is not very easily acquired. The Kafirs, however, are now many of them excellent drivers and managers of oxen. This is one of the occupations that they take to with facility. Twelve or fourteen oxen are yoked together in a long span, by means of a kind of fork of wood, which is thrust over the neck of each animal, and confined in its place by a stout thong of bullock-hide. The trek-chain, or hide-rope, (trek-tow) runs along between each pair of the oxen, and is attached to the forked yokes of each pair by a cross bar of wood. The oxen are caught for yoking by throwing a looped thong over their widely-spreading horns, and are then marshalled into their places along the trek-chain so that the yokes can be slipped over their necks. The driver stands or sits in front of the waggon, and plies a long thong, fastened upon the end of a tall bamboo-cane; with this whip, he can inflict a sharp cut upon any ox in the span. He uses his voice mainly to direct them when they are to turn, and to encourage them to increased exertion, addressing each beast

by its proper name. The driving vocabulary consists of a very remarkable jargon, half Kafir, half Dutch, which seems however to be perfectly understood by the quadrupeds to whom it is addressed, difficult as it is for the uninitiated biped to whom it is not addressed to comprehend its meaning. The progress made in travelling with the ox-waggon is between three and four miles an hour, which is effected by alternate fits of walking and running. In suitable spots the long span of oxen is roused, by violent use of voice and thong, into a kind of trot, which is continued for three or four minutes, the trot being then allowed again to subside into the usual slow walk. A day's journey for a loaded waggon consists of from twelve to twenty miles.

As a general rule, the life of the settler in Natal is rude, rather than hard. There is scarcely such a thing as absolute poverty to be found in the colony. Each man very soon learns to provide for the immediate wants of his family from the production of his own land. Porridge made with the meal of Indian corn, and eaten with milk and sugar, is a never-failing resource. And to this, poultry, game, eggs, butter, and wheaten bread, are very soon added. The fire is maintained by wood cut in the neighbouring bush, and water is taken from the running stream. Cooking is for the most part performed in large iron pots, or in ovens. The practical fact of the settler's position in Natal may be summed up in a very few words. Persons who have been used to easy circumstances and who have learned at home to consider luxuries and dependence upon the service of others essential, will necessarily find life in Natal a hard and uncomfortable one, unless they bring with them all the appliances requisite for the supply of their acquired wants. Persons who have been accustomed to narrow means and hard work, at home, and who have been trained by circumstances to perform menial offices for themselves, will find life in Natal a very pleasant one. In the cheap Kafir service they will command help, such as they never could have thought of looking for in England. The one great recommendation of colonial life to persons of this character, is that they can at once maintain a respectable position upon very slender means,

on account of their freedom from the artificial restraints imposed by society at home, and on account of the unlimited resources by which they are environed. The mistress of the household never needs hesitate to clean her own rooms, to open her own door, and to cook her own dinner, when circumstances require that she should do so. The master of the land, as a matter of course, drives his own cart, and follows his own plough; in fact, the very labourer who is honest, industrious, and sober, in Natal, takes rank immediately in the grade of the social scale, which would be considered in England to belong to his so-called "betters." It must be admitted, however, that persons of good education very often bear the privations and roughness of colonial life better than individuals who have not had the advantage of the same mental discipline.

It may be as well here to state succinctly what the work is that Kafir servants are accustomed to perform. Upon the whole, domestic occupations are to their taste. They cut and bring firewood; make the fires; fetch water; attend to the cooking; wash the kitchen utensils; sweep and cleanse the rooms; run of errands; carry burthens; and wash the linen in running streams. The men only go out to service. Kafir women are too much required for the drudgery of their own kraals to be permitted to make their appearance in the dwellings of Europeans. The Kafir men are singularly docile and can be taught to do anything, if they can but be induced to remain long enough. As has been already stated, Kafirs do sometimes attach themselves to families to which they become used, and return to them again and again after intervals of dignified ease. Some Kafirs become very tolerable cooks, and learn both to serve the dinner and make the beds. Mr. Arbuthnot records that upon one occasion he came upon a Kafir who was adroitly ironing out the flounces of his mistress' dress; as he shook out the voluminous folds of the garment, he now and then ejaculated the single expressive exclamation, "Wow," which means a great deal in the Kafir tongue, and then fell to work again at his strange occupation. The young men and boys make excellent nurses and attendants upon young children; the dark-skinned, strong-limbed man

may often be seen outside the cottage door in towns, with a young white infant upon his knee, and a cup of pap by his side, gently administering spoonful after spoonful.

A certain measure of tact, and a peculiar kind of management, are required by the Kafir servant, in order that he may be at once satisfied and comfortable in his place, and yet serviceable to his employer. The master or mistress must be at once moderate and firm. The attempt must not be made to exact too severe a measure of labour, neither must violence be done to innate notions of self-respect and dignity. There are services which are looked upon as matters of course by white domestics, which the Kafirs can scarcely ever be induced to perform. But while care is thus taken to avoid giving unnecessary offence to national habits and prejudices, and while certain small privileges are freely accorded, the employer must also show that he means to be master, and to maintain the authority of his position with an even and strong hand. The natural disinclination of the Kafir to labour must not be excited by too exacting demands, or he soon becomes uneasy and restless, and finds that there is some imperative need for his presence at his kraal. Some leisure to chat with his companions and to snuff is indispensable to his existence. On the other hand, a certain degree of reserve is necessary on the master's part for the maintenance of authority. The Kafir is so used to be kept at arm's length by his own headmen and chieftains, that he looks upon familiarity as an expression of the want of that superiority of rank on the part of his employer which entitles him to willing obedience. He serves the white man quite as much because he is an "*Inkosi*," or chief, as because he is the payer of wages. The employers who get on the best with domestic servants of the Kafir race, are those who never scold, but who issue their orders in the tone of off-hand good-tempered command, reiterated with decision when there is need. Nearly all the Kafirs who enter upon white service are observing and quick, and at the same time light-hearted and good-humoured, and easily pleased and encouraged by looks and words.

The usual dress of the Kafir servant is a shirt of white, or blue-and-white cotton, and nothing more. When the shirt is

belted round the waist and made to look a little blouse-like, it presents a decent appearance enough. But to the eye which has but recently left the household scenes of England, the apparition is, to say the least, a very strange one, when upon a first visit to some hospitable merchant's house at Durban, a stalwart Kafir in a white shirt hanging loosely about half way down his naked thighs, and with perhaps the addition of a black silk handkerchief round his neck, comes in to serve the table. The insufficient clothing of the Kafir servants is one result of the uncertain tenure of service. The housekeeper has but little temptation to furnish his servant with decent clothes, when there is the strong probability that the man so clothed may start off to his kraal at the end of the week, and that the process may have to be repeated some half dozen times in every year. No provision is made for the accommodation of the Kafir servant beyond a blanket and a straw mat. At the hour of rest he spreads his mat upon the floor of the kitchen, rolls himself up in his blanket, places his head upon a block of wood which serves him for a pillow, and his arrangements for the night are complete.

The Kafirs make excellent grooms if the eye of the master is kept upon their doings. They also carry heavy burthens long distances with great readiness. The cumbersome post-bags are conveyed between Durban and Maritzburg, a distance of 54 miles, three times a week, by walking Kafirs, with unfailing punctuality. The distance is traversed uninterruptedly by the carrier in fifteen hours. The attempt was once made to accomplish the mail service, between Durban and Maritzburg, by relays of carriers, but the plan could not be made to work as satisfactorily.

The hard strain of agricultural labour is especially repugnant to the Kafir's constitution and habits of idleness. In his own barbarous home, it is his women who dig and delve, while he sits in the shadow of his hut and fashions his assegai, or talks with his companions. It can be hardly surprising, therefore, that he should be slow to engage in what is, to his notions, mean drudgery. On this account the owners and occupiers of land sometimes find it difficult to get labourers enough to do

their work, especially if they have not kraals upon their own property. In some instances, planters have succeeded in procuring labour by sending gratuities to petty chiefs. There is in this plan the objection that it makes it to the interest of the chiefs to use their influence to keep back labour unless the gratuity be paid. It is yet an open problem how, with rapidly increasing demands, the requisite amount of labour shall be satisfactorily secured. At the present time it is in contemplation to import a certain number of coolies from India. The Legislative Council of the colony have recently voted a sum of £5000 to be expended in this way. It is impossible to predicate what influence the introduction of coolie labourers may exert upon the Kafirs. Although unwilling to perform laborious work, the Kafir race quite knows how to value the opportunity of earning money when inclined to do so. It is just possible that fear of the introduction to any large extent of this kind of competition into the labour-markets, may work wonders upon the shrewd Kafir mind.

In the year 1849, a book was published in England, addressed to intending emigrants, which was termed "The Settler's New Home." In this book Natal was alluded to as a field for colonial enterprise in true and glowing terms, but the emigrant was advised not to make his "new home" in this colony, on account of the unsettled and unsafe state of the Kafir population. The following extracts from this book very sufficiently and fairly express the views of its author.

"The colony (*of Natal*) is surrounded by hostile, savage tribes, who maintained a constant and deadly warfare with the original Dutch settlers, and stole and burned their property and dwellings whenever they had an opportunity. These savages amount to at least 100,000. Besides these the colony swarms with refugees from the tyranny and cruelty of the native chiefs. It may almost be said to be occupied by escaped savages to an extent to our number, enormously, any amount of white emigration likely to take place for a great many years. A strong military force will be required for a great length of time to '*overawe the boers and savages*;' and in the present economical temper of the mother country, we entertain a strong conviction that the expense will not be suffered. We are, indeed, assured

in this case, as in all others where colonies are infested with savages, that the native population forms the most valuable element of the district. They are, we are told, good herdsmen, tractable to rude labour, and willing to undertake very simple duties. It is to us, however, only certain that they are too numerous to be easily got rid of, and too barbarous to be safe, either as domestics or as neighbours. We do not believe in the practicability of civilizing savage blood. The wild and fierce tendencies of the children of nature have never yet submitted to labour, or the plodding monotony of civilization. The red man has been extirpated, not civilized in America, and nature seems to rule that races, like rats, may eat each other, but never amalgamate. In this settlement are 4,000 Dutch boers, only 2,000 British colonists, and it is computed at least 100,000 Zulu or Kafir refugees from the tyranny of the native chiefs. The present military force required to overawe these is 600 men, at an annual cost of £30,000. The colonial commissioners report that the universal character of the natives is at once superstitions and warlike; their estimate of the value of human life very low; war and bloodshed the engagements with which their circumstances have familiarized them from their childhood, and from which they can be restrained only by the strong arm of power; their passions are easily inflamed, while from their servile obedience to despotic rulers they show ready obedience to constituted authority.

“This work is intended to be the friendly adviser of private individuals in their plan of life and scheme of happiness. It is not a government project or a political system. Were we merely to square our ideas with the objects of the colonial office, the power of the mother country, or the public purposes of government, we would strenuously advise every one to go to Natal who had a mind to emigrate, because we are persuaded that if this colony were fully settled, it would be nearly, if not quite, the most valuable dependency of the British crown. But we are abundantly satisfied that individual emigration to that colony would entail only danger, anxiety, and disturbance to the emigrant, and that the constant necessity of watching his property, repelling aggression, and defending his life, would render his exertions unprofitable, and his existence miserable. Society in such a district must be of the rudest kind. The comforts and appliances of civilization must be absolutely wanting. Even civilized men rapidly degenerate into barbarism, amid barbaric circumstances; and the very spirit of daring and adventure, generated by the vicinity of danger, is inimical to orderly and settled habits. The antagonism of races

degenerates into a loss of respect for humanity and life. Where there is no power of enforcing respect for the law, each man must depend on his bowie knife and revolving pistols.

“We, therefore, under the existing circumstances of Natal, regard emigration thither as perfectly suicidal, and as totally unfitted for individual adventure or private enterprize. In other colonies emigrants are absorbed into an existing civilized population. At Natal they only land to have to cope with strangers, the wilderness, and savages. Emigration will not do there. Nothing but wholesale colonization upon a well-matured and orderly-contrived plan, will answer.”

These remarks afford a remarkable illustration of the extent to which the facts of a remote position may be misapprehended by persons who glean up information concerning them, without being able to look into matters for themselves. The truth in regard to the position of Natal is as far from the conception of this writer as any thing well can be. It is true, that when the Dutch emigrants from the Cape Colony first came into the territory which now comprises the colony of Natal, they suffered severely from the hostilities of the Zulus. But they did so because they were taken by surprise. Their best men went, as has been elsewhere narrated, as they conceived under the sanction of friendly relations, to the stronghold of the Zulu despot, and were caught in a trap. When the Zulus burst, after the success of their stratagem, upon the almost defenceless encampments of the Boers, they of course committed acts of cruelty and destruction. Their aim was to exterminate the unwelcome intruders upon their territories, and to get rid of their presence in the most summary way. But what was the result of even this struggle, in which the Zulus were at the height of their power under Dingaan, while their antagonists were but a handful of surprised men? The Dutch retired into fortified encampments, whose ramparts were nothing more than frail waggons, and there made good their ground; and so soon as their numbers were slightly augmented, they advanced into the heart of the Zulu territory, and with their own right arms, without any aid from without, without a single company of trained soldiers—they crushed their antagonists, deposed Dingaan from his throne, and set up another in his place. The author says that

the savages “maintained a constant and deadly warfare with the original Dutch settlers.” History tells us that so soon as the Dutch settlers had reason to understand the character of the race by which they were surrounded, 460 Boers bearded the Zulu lion in his den, scattered his army, and effectually and finally broke his power. It was a handful of Dutch Boers who really took and held the land, which is now the dependency of Great Britain. Before the British troops came into operation, those men had securely established themselves in possession of the country, and had founded the city which is now the seat of colonial government. It is stated that a military force of 600 men was required “to overawe the Boers as well as the savages.” The fact is that so soon as they understood the determination of the British Government to maintain its possession of Natal, those Boers either at once withdrew beyond the mountains, or settled down as contented British subjects in the uplands of the colonial territory, where they now form a most valuable and friendly trading community. It is true that Natal is surrounded by savage tribes; but it is also true that during the ten years of colonial infancy which have elapsed since the publication of the “Settler’s New Home,” not a single hostile demonstration has been made towards the British by those tribes. Traders have, during that period gone continually with waggons loaded with coveted merchandise, into the midst of these hostile savages, where they have not even a claim to the protection of the British Government; have remained there for months until their merchandize has been entirely disposed of, and have then returned with herds of cattle acquired by barter, without one single case of molestation. This too has been done, not by a few individuals alone, but by hundreds, many of whom have made their wives and families the companions of their travel. It has been no uncommon thing for these traders to leave a portion of their goods, which they could not dispose of in a limited time, in the “barbarian territory,” in charge of some petty chief, and to return months afterwards and find their property safe. In the face of these facts, what can be said of this author’s prophecies and fears!

The “Settler’s New Home” alludes to the 100,000 barbarians

who have settled as refugees from the tyranny of their own chiefs, within Natal, as a further source of danger. It is perfectly true that Natal has a very large black population of this character, upon which the colonists have hitherto drawn for their supply of cheap labour. Hitherto these refugees have proved an additional guarantee for the safety of the colony, instead of being a source of danger. They are perfectly aware that their only protection from the power which they dread, is in the British Government, and that, were it not for the existence of this government as an efficient protecting power, they would have been followed across the frontier and destroyed.

It is of considerable importance that a correct idea should be formed of the condition in which the black population of Natal is actually placed. These people are almost entirely refugees from surrounding powerful tribes. Hence, when they come into Natal, they cease to feel bound by hereditary allegiance, and merely attach themselves *de novo* to some of the petty chieftains who are living there in submission to British authority. The Kafirs in Natal are split up into innumerable small clans, each dwelling under its own chief and ruler. But these petty chieftains are all jealous of their neighbours' influence and power, and are all looking up to the paramount chief, that is the British Lieutenant-Governor, as their own best support and safeguard. As matters now stand, it would be one of the most difficult of tasks to unite these small, mutually suspicious, and jealous chieftains in a course of combined action. Nothing indeed but the sense of a common grievance and injustice could effect such an end. This in reality is the only danger of which the colonists of Natal have any cause to beware. The Government has simply to avoid entering upon any course of proceeding which would of necessity enlist the sympathy of every petty chief against itself. If such a course were unfortunately taken, it would still issue but in one way. It would end either in the expulsion or extermination of the black element of the community. The white foot is now so firmly planted on the soil, and white enterprise is now so thoroughly vitalized there, that no other final consequence could come. This, however, would only be worked out through intermediate stages of suffering and devastation,

which would be repugnant to every actor in the scene. It is to a very different result that the future of the colony of Natal, under the blessing of Divine Providence, and under wise and judicious rule, is directed.

The author of the book under notice remarks, that the Red race in America has been extirpated and not civilized, and he thence draws the inference that a like fate is in store for the Kafir race of Southern Africa. The root of his error lies in over-hasty and unsound analogies and deductions. The Kafir of Natal is *not* the Red Man of the West, and has scarcely anything in common with him in his constitution. He is about as much like to him as the horse is like to the zebra. He has a certain love of ease and independence in his disposition, but he has also a considerable dash of the negro-docility and gentleness combined therewith. He likes to roam free over his wild hills, and to sit and dream at his own pleasure in his kraal; but he can be made to bend to the rein and the spur, when these are judiciously brought into play. He has at once fierce Arab and soft negro blood in his veins. Who ever heard of the Red Indian labouring for money? And who has *not* heard of the Kafirs working for personal gain? During the last year there were nearly ten thousand Kafirs in Natal working daily for white settlers, without any other pressure being applied to induce them to do so beyond the offer of wages, and the sense that they could leave their employers whenever they pleased. The Kafirs are indeed particularly fond of money; their liking for it amounts to quite a passion, and this passion has already gone far to reconcile them entirely to the presence of those white masters, who seem to have so exhaustless a store of the silver "pennies."

The "Settler's New Home" did not advise emigration to Natal because "abundantly satisfied that such a course would entail only danger, anxiety and disturbance upon the settler, and the constant necessity of watching his property, repelling aggression, and defending his life." Notwithstanding this unpromising picture, many persons *did* emigrate to Natal, and have now been ten years in the colony, and what is the state of affairs that they have found? Such a state that they, in common with all their neighbours in the fearful danger, *never think of*

using either bolt, bar, or lock upon their premises from year's end to year's end. In the hot weather they do not deem it necessary to close either window or door, having discovered how much more they have to fear from close air than from Mr. Sydney Smith's bugbears. Labouring men often leave their wives and families in the most lonely places for weeks and months, while they pursue their avocations in distant parts of the colony ; but such a thing was never heard of as any act of violence being committed towards those who are so left. Ladies ride from place to place through wild districts without a single attendant, and are never molested. In the early days of colonization newly-arrived settlers, having the urgent necessity of repelling aggression and defending their lives in their minds, were in the habit of carrying a tolerable burthen of fire-arms with them when they travelled. Now a man mounts his horse and canters from one end of the colony to the other, sleeping at wild Kafir kraals by the way, and would as soon think of carrying a weapon as a featherbed. Herds of cattle and troops of horses graze at large round the settlers' homesteads, and are not even penned at night, being merely counted now and then to ascertain that none have strayed away from their companions. In another place instances are adduced of Kafir messengers having been sent long distances with large sums of money in a loose bag, and having to sleep in the kraals of their countrymen by the way, without the slightest defalcation taking place.

The author of the "Settler's New Home" states that the colonist in Natal has "to depend for his personal safety on his bowie knives and revolving pistols." So far from such a dependence being either required or allowed, there is perhaps no country in the world where the majesty of the law is more thoroughly vindicated, or more faithfully revered. There is an efficient staff of resident Magistrates in commission throughout the colony, and crime scarcely ever escapes detection, and its due meed of punishment. In one of the last sessions of the Criminal Court in Maritzburg, a Kafir was tried for an act of violence against a young female of his own tribe, which ended in the girl's death. The criminal was convicted for his offence, condemned to death, and executed. The occurrence took place

in one of the wild upland districts of the colony, and the criminal was seized *by the Kafirs of a neighbouring kraal*, when suspicion fell upon him, was carefully imprisoned and watched for the night, and the next day was carried some considerable distance and delivered up into the hands of the resident Magistrate at Greytown. So much for the lawless state of society in the wildest districts of Natal!

Since the year 1849, hostilities have broken out more than once between the Cape colony, and the hereditary chiefs and independent tribes dwelling on its frontiers, and there has also been war both in Basuto-land and Zululand. Peace and security have nevertheless remained undisturbed within the precincts of the colony. In the years 1857 and 1858, some little trouble was given to the Government by two refractory petty chiefs residing under British rule; but in both cases the matter issued in furnishing a very striking illustration of the facts which have been already dwelt upon, as characterizing the relations of the British with the Kafirs of the colony. In both instances the recusants were young men who had been allowed to assume the office of chieftainship over petty tribes, as Lieutenants of the Government, but who unfortunately proved to be unduly under the influence of superstitions common to their race, and therefore not worthy of the trust reposed in them.

In the month of March, 1857, a quarrel took place between two petty chieftains residing in the Umkomanzi district of the colony, at the wedding of a young man of the one tribe to a girl belonging to the other. The dispute led to a struggle, in which one of the chieftains, and twenty of his men, were slain. The surviving chief, Usidoi, was thereupon summoned by the Magistrate to undergo examination concerning these deaths.

He refused to obey the summons, and was consequently called upon to appear before the Lieutenant-Governor, as paramount chief, at the seat of Government. Usidoi sent excuses in words, but was obviously too timid to trust his person in the hands of the offended authorities. The matter accordingly came to be gravely discussed among the smaller tribes, and there was reason to fear that they might incline to combine among themselves for mutual defence if the Government did not adopt

strong measures against the offender. The Lieutenant-Governor accordingly deemed it necessary, for the vindication of authority, and for the sake of example, to depose Usidoi and his family, and to fine the tribe, and give them a more trustworthy leader. A Kafir force, under the command of the Secretary for Native Affairs, and supported by a small detachment of regular troops, was sent to effect this object. Usidoi fled on Mr. Shepstone's approach, and his tribe submitted. Seven thousand head of cattle were seized in payment of the fine; not more than ten per cent. of the living wealth of the tribe escaping the levy. A new chief was appointed, and a number of the cattle were left in his hands to be distributed wherever the Magistrate deemed it needful. The death of four of Usidoi's Kafirs was unfortunately attendant upon this expedition, and one of the Government Kafirs was also killed by accident. At this comparatively trifling cost, however, the supremacy of the law was effectually vindicated. The tribe has continued in orderly obedience to its new chief ever since, and Usidoi has remained beyond the frontier.

In the month of December, 1857, a Kafir, who was a particular favourite of the Chief Matyan, located in the Klip River County, died. A brother of the deceased was considered by Matyan to have caused the death by the practice of witchcraft, and was seized and bound by a party of men from the Chief's own kraal. The prisoner died from injuries received at the time of his arrest, and Matyan was summoned by the resident Magistrate of Ladismith to answer for the violence. The offence was deemed exceedingly grave, because Matyan had been implicated in the murder of an uncle and two sons, under a similar pretence, in 1850, and had been then cautioned after being fined, that if anything of the kind occurred again, his own life would be in danger from the law. On this account he was naturally unwilling to obey the Magistrate's call. He refused to appear, and the Magistrate then requested him to meet him at one of his own kraals, whither he went for the purpose. The Magistrate there received a point blank refusal, and learned that Matyan had surrounded himself with armed followers for protection. He accordingly reported the matter to the Lieutenant-Governor, and His Excellency forthwith repaired to Ladismith, directing the

Natal Carbineers, consisting of forty-seven men and officers, to follow him immediately. Messengers from the Magistrate in the mean time continually urged upon Matyan the necessity of submission. The Chief in return insisted upon his innocence of the murder; but resolutely refused to place himself in the Magistrate's hands. An expedition was consequently organised, consisting of the combined forces of the Natal Carbineers, the Natal Frontier Guards, thirty-eight of the Dutch Boers, and five hundred Kafirs, under Mr. John Shepstone. Matyan's entire tribe retired into the bush, and the armed force swept through the location, meeting with only passive resistance, (except in one case,) and seized 7000 head of cattle belonging to the refractory tribe. Thirteen of Matyan's Kafirs, and two of the Government Kafirs, were killed during an attempt made by the former to rescue some of the captured cattle in the act of being driven through an intricate pass. The Secretary for Native Affairs now placed himself in communication with Matyan's tribe, and a proclamation was issued deposing and outlawing Matyan, and intimating that the entire tribe would be broken up and scattered, after the reaping of their mealie crops, unless full submission was made and the person of Matyan surrendered. Mr. John Shepstone was left, with his Kafirs, on the borders of the location, during the ripening of the mealie crops, to enforce this condition, and had several interviews with Matyan, who was always surrounded by armed men. Upon one occasion he made an unsuccessful attempt to arrest the Chief with an inadequate force, and twenty-five of Matyan's men were killed. Matyan made great efforts on this occasion to excite his people to attack Mr. John Shepstone; but this was prevented by the prudence of the old men, and by the timely appearance of half a dozen horsemen prepared against the contingency. Matyan, and a few of the young men of his tribe, fled across the Buffalo River into Panda's dominions, after this, and the rest of the tribe submitted themselves to the sentence of the Government. The tribe is now entirely broken up and scattered. The resident Magistrate of Ladismith not long afterwards procured men for work from this very clan. At the time Mr. John Shepstone made the attempt to seize Matyan he had only thirty Kafirs with him,

while Matyan was surrounded by three hundred followers all fully equipped for war. The Kafirs evinced such readiness to answer the call of the Government, that the difficulty was rather to avoid excessive numbers, than to procure a sufficient gathering for the efficient performance of the service. Such is an apt illustration of the position of affairs, as regards internal danger from the Kafirs, in the colony at the present time; and all old and experienced residents agree in the conviction that a disciplined troop of one hundred and fifty well-mounted and well-armed men could go any where, and do anything, in the territory, beneath British rule. In the year 1852, the late Recorder, Mr. Cloete, remarked that "he did not believe the history of man afforded a parallel to the instance of security of property and safety of life, found during the preceding ten years by Europeans in Natal." The present Chief Justice, Mr. Harding, emphatically confirms the opinion of his predecessor, and adds expressions of unqualified surprise at the evidence, furnished by the annals of his court, of the comparative freedom of the Kafirs of the colony from crime.

It remains then finally to append this practical corollary to the rash and unwarranted statements of the "Settler's New Home." Without the adoption of any "wholesale system of colonization," and by the sole aid of "simple and gradual emigration," Natal has, in ten years, become *a flourishing colony of more than eight thousand prosperous European inhabitants, and with prospects brightening day by day.*

It may not be amiss here to enumerate formally the relations by which the colony is connected with its neighbours. Beyond the boundary of Natal, towards the south, lies the Amafonga, a country under the friendly Chief Faku. Beyond the boundary towards the north and north-east, lies the Zululand of King Panda, who was placed on his throne by the Dutch, and whose people have had friendly connections with the Europeans ever since. Towards the north-west, Natal joins upon the Dutch colony of the Orange River Free-state. Beyond the boundary towards the south-west, stretches the Basuto-land of the enlightened Chief Moshesh, separated however from Natal by the inaccessible precipices of the Drakenberg mountains, where,

in case of hostility, only two or three passes would need to be guarded to make all approach from that direction next door to an impossibility. The traditional enemies of the European colonists of South Africa, the formidable frontier Kafirs, who have furnished one element of the so-called Kafir wars, dwell hundreds of miles away from the peaceful and favoured "Land of the Nativity."

APPENDIX.

HINTS TO EMIGRANTS' WIVES.

CONTRIBUTED BY A LADY.

WIVES who are on the point of emigrating to Natal, cannot too soon be aware that in all young, hard-working, colonial communities, there is very little room for the display of drawing-room graces and accomplishments. The wife, in Natal, is either a "help-meet" in the fullest and strongest sense of the term, or a hindrance and draw-back to her husband. The colonial wife commonly needs to be, as well as companion and adviser, the instructor of children, the cook, baker, laundress, gardener, farming bailiff, and often tailor. For these duties, solid and sterling qualities are required, rather than refinements and elegancies.

In the choice of articles of dress to bring out to Natal, regard should first be had in all cases to utility and strength. The heat of the climate makes it desirable that the quality of strength should in some instances be combined, as much as possible, with that of lightness; still, a good material of its kind should always be selected. Thus, dresses of cool, light material, such as print, gingham, muslin, barège, and llama cloth, are most suitable; the two latter, as not requiring washing must under some circumstances, be reckoned the most serviceable of all. A large stock of well-made, substantial, but again, not over-stout, under-clothing, will be found invaluable, since needle-work is not only dear in the colony, but difficult to get done. In addition to this, pieces of long-cloth, holland, print, and in short, of almost any kind of cotton fabric used for clothing,

may be brought out, and will prove of great worth at the beginning, when colonial supplies and colonial prices are most likely to be felt disappointing and disheartening by the new colonist. A good stock of boots and shoes should be included in the outfit, and these, like other articles of dress, require to be well made, but not too heavy. There is one particular in which the boots now in common use by ladies in England, are unfit for colonial wear. It is in having only the part that covers the toe, made of leather, while the rest of the boot is of cloth or cashmere. In the rough paths and roads of Natal, this is an insufficient defence to the foot, besides being ruinous to the pocket. It is desirable to have boots that are "goloshed," as the trade expression is, all round; that is, which have the leather carried on from the toe, in a strip all round the sides and heel.

The same rule should be observed in choosing furniture as has been recommended for clothing. Strength and not style is the great desideratum; and so great is the demand for articles possessing this qualification, that any which may be found superfluous on arrival in the colony, may be readily disposed of by auction (the general mode of buying and selling in the colony), not only for their full value, but often for more than the price originally paid for them. A piece or two of chintz, even of the plain kind called furniture-lining, is sure to prove a good store; as the rough furniture, and the bare, unfinished rooms which have occasionally to be put up with in country places, may often be rendered pleasant-looking and comfortable by the use of neat covers and simple curtains made of this material. The iron bedstead is in most common use in the colony, on account of the ease with which it can be taken to pieces or put together, and also for lightness of carriage. It is not always possible to obtain a full-sized one in the colony; such a bedstead is, therefore, no bad provision to make. Horse-hair or spring mattresses are most desirable during the five or six *hot* and the three or four *warm* months of the year. Bolsters and pillows will be found no ill store, though after two or three years' residence in the colony, the colonist's wife may have a large stock of them at pleasure, from the pluckings of the

innumerable fowls that are a staple commodity of a South African *country* table. A good supply of bed and house linen (the former of cotton), of blankets, and light counterpanes, is desirable.

Any one of those useful and portable machines, lately invented to save manual labour, would be almost sure to prove useful: such as a meat-chopper, a washing-machine, a small patent mangle. Here washing is performed principally by male Kafirs, at the river's side, and these make up for their want of skill by a double exercise of brute force, and by the employment of boards and stones as aids in the work. The consequence is that any articles of clothing of tender nature barely survive their first ablution in the Natalian streams. Ironing is generally dispensed with, in the case of all but the garments which require to be starched, and its place is supplied by a process of stamping, which is also accomplished by the native servants. The result is more satisfactory than might be expected; still an English housewife will be very glad to have her preference for perfectly smooth linen indulged, as it can be, when she possesses a patent mangle.

Complete dinner and breakfast services of *enamelled* crockery will soon pay their price twice over; for everything of earthenware is so sure to suffer breakage, sooner or later, in the hands of the Kafir servants, that the replacing of losses thus experienced becomes a heavy item in household expences.

The iron baking-pot or camp-oven is the article most commonly employed in the colony, for cooking. In it meat is roasted, bread, cakes, and pies are baked, and irons are heated. It is placed over the wood fire, on bars of iron provided for the purpose. It is an inconvenient article for the service it has to do, both on account of its size and weight, and of the difficulty of regulating the heat that is applied to it. Some sort of stove, that will burn *wood*—and excellent ones are manufactured now—will be a very serviceable addition to the domestic outfit.

Soyer's Shilling Cookery Book is a useful manual to be provided with, because it gives directions for so many different ways of dressing the same articles of food, such as beef and fowls for instance, which are the two chief, nay almost the only kinds of animal food to be had in many parts of Natal. The multi-

plicity of ingredients mentioned in some of these receipts, need not discourage the colonial housekeeper. Carrots and turnips may be scarce, but pumpkins and sweet potatoes will fairly supply their place, particularly when seasoned with a few ounces of good-will, and when the eater brings with him the sauce of a good appetite. This seldom fails to accompany the colonial husband, who returns to his evening meal after a day's work in the field, at the arrow-root mill or in the sugar-house.

The seeds of cabbages, lettuces, endive, carrots, turnips, celery, beet-root, radishes, and cress, will be found valuable, as there is nowhere in the colony a regular market for the supply of vegetables; and if brought out quite fresh, these seeds will be likely to thrive. Provision for the kitchen-garden may seem to come rather within the husband's province than the wife's. But in reality the *care* of that useful portion of the homestead is very likely to fall to her share, since the labour of the husband may be entirely required and more profitably engaged in the plantations or farming pursuits; in which the seed of his future prosperity is, with God's blessing, to be sown. The garden may become a pleasant portion of the wife's daily work, in a country where the climate, especially in the morning and evening, is so agreeable for out-of-door occupation, and where the plants that will grow, grow so rapidly. In this as in most departments of the household, she will have to employ a Kafir for her coadjutor. And here it may be well to add a few words on this most peculiar feature to the new colonists of domestic life in Natal—the employment of the native population as servants.

An Englishwoman's first feeling on landing in the colony, and beholding the dingy, half-clothed figures of the Kafirs, will be one of repugnance to the idea of having to employ such rude creatures as servants in her house, and nurses to her children. The sooner, however, she conquers this repugnance, so natural at first, the better for her comfort. She will find them, under good training and management, become very useful and intelligent assistants in their own departments of the kitchen, the garden, and even in that far more important part of the household establishment, the nursery—where the young

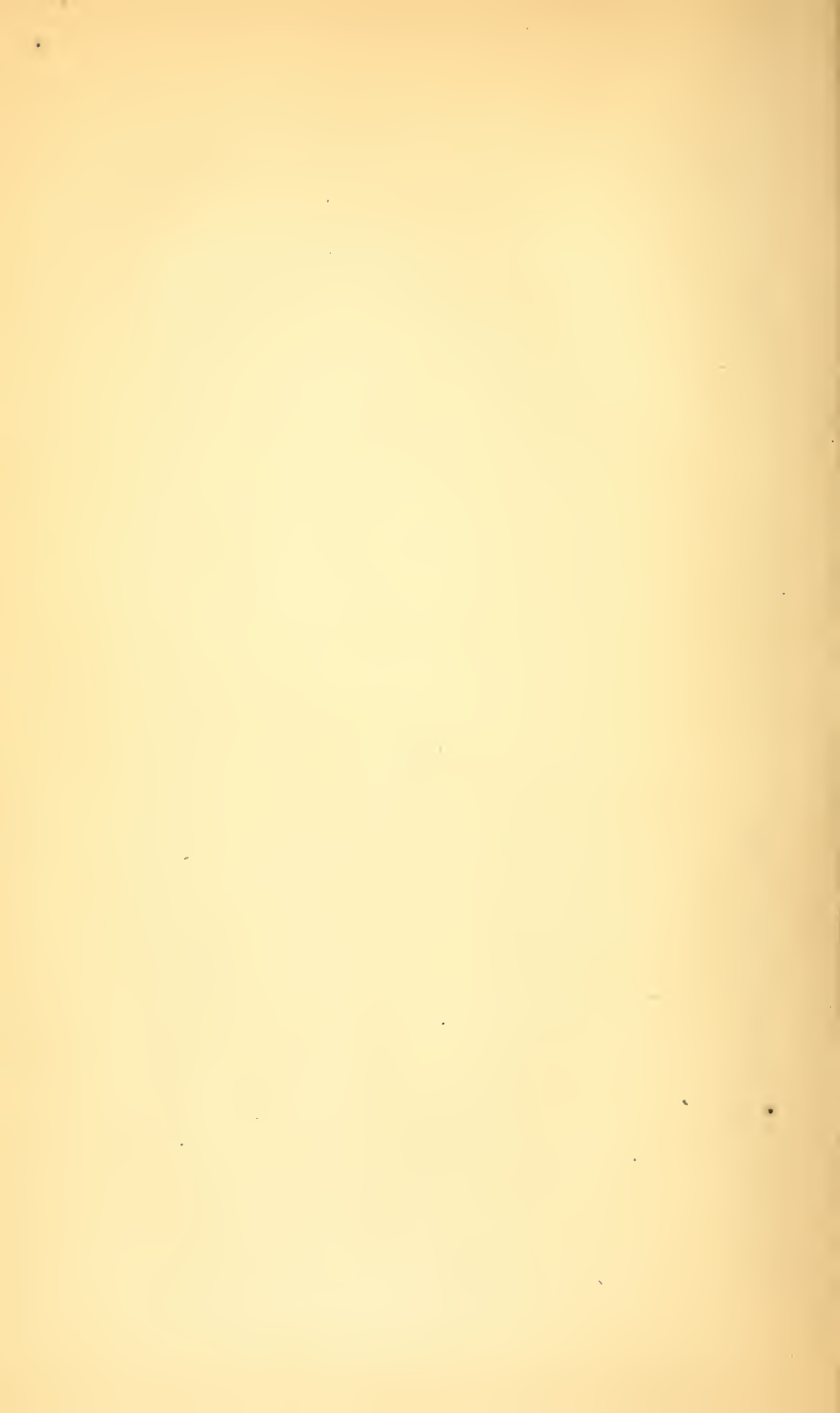
human plants are to be reared and trained, to form in time good and profitable members of society. Many Kafirs will come to her hand already well experienced in the work of all these departments ; but even where such is the case, their worth as servants will depend greatly on the treatment they experience at her hands, and on the character of her general bearing towards them. Before all things it is requisite that these should be marked by firmness and the maintenance of her right position, one of superiority to themselves. It sometimes happens that the repugnance first entertained towards the dirty-looking savage, is followed by a revulsion of feeling, on finding what a useful, efficient, and intelligent being he is, and an inclination to treat him with familiarity, such as is rarely adopted even towards a "good old servant" at home. Nothing can be more mischievous than the indulgence of this inclination, for the Kafir is as prone to feel contempt for one who lowers himself by familiarity, as he is to bestow respect on one who commands it by keeping him in his right place. With him, everyone who is not an *Inkosi* (lord or ruler), is *Inja* (a dog).

But whilst avoiding an unwise familiarity, and enforcing the duties of obedient domestics, from the Kafirs towards herself, the colonist's wife will do well to remember that *she* too has high duties to perform towards them. In throwing her into contact with these untaught heathens, Providence places her in a most responsible position, one in which she may obtain great influence over them for good. If her own conduct testifies to the truth and uprightness, the kindness and good-will, inculcated by Christianity, she may be the means of inclining these dark heathen to listen to the teaching of those who are labouring to bring them within the light of the Gospel.

We have already mentioned the use of the natives as nurses. It should be said also that a nursery, properly so called, is almost unknown in Natal. The broad verandah to the house supplies its place admirably for the younger children, and a little Kafir boy or girl will look after them there as carefully and tenderly as an English nursemaid. As children grow older, the less they have to do with the native portion of the household the better. They should now be as much as possible the companions of the

mother, and be trained by her, as their strength permits, to become her useful assistants in her varied occupations both in and out of doors. Where a school is within reach, she will gladly avail herself of its aid for their instruction in book-knowledge; but her home may be so situated that she has to take this part of their education also upon herself. It is therefore extremely advisable that she should include in her domestic outfit, a good stock of well-selected school-books, as manuals for her help and guidance in teaching.

finis.



CORRIGENDA.

<i>p.</i>	<i>l.</i>		<i>read</i>	
4	30	for Basuta		Basuto
13	9	„ Am a fengu	„	Amafengu
17	13	„ Potgeiter	„	Potgeiter
17	31	„ Sikougella	„	Sikonyella
18	17	„ Blaaukranz	„	Blaauwkranz
23	5	„ beleagured	„	beleaguered
24	30	„ Gietsman	„	Zietsman
30	7	„ Ketchwago	„	Ketchwayo, <i>and wherever else the name occurs</i>
31	20	„ Indiena	„	Induna
36	11	„ sesanaum	„	sesamum
36	22	„ Umgingisago	„	Umgingisayo
51	14	„ January	„	February
55	28, 9	„ tradewind	„	tradewind-sky
63	30	„ searching	„	scorching
91	21	„ Indian Ibot	„	Indian Shot
93	20	„ Tookey	„	Toohy
98	9	„ Russell and Coy	„	Russell and Co.
99	2	„ ditto		ditto
116	15	„ Carwin		Cauvin
138	17	„ streletzia	„	strelitzia
139	6	„ Thew's	„	Few's
152	8	„ Tambookie	„	Tambootie
159	25	„ Asclepiods	„	Asclepiads
175	16	„ shoes	„	hoes
199	3	„ births	„	berths

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